

# THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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## A Guide to the Commission Report

EDGAR B. WESLEY

*University of Minnesota*

Curriculum reports by national committees have been characterized by brevity and specificity. The reports of the Committee of Seven, published in 1899, and of the Committee of Eight, published in 1911, are very small volumes; the report of the Social Studies Committee of 1916 is a small booklet. These committees visualized the task of the social studies teacher in a concrete fashion and made their recommendations in concise lists of subjects or topics. Such reports needed no commentators or interpreters.

The current Report<sup>1</sup> of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association is markedly different from its predecessors. In the first place, it is far more extensive than previous reports. As it now stands the Report consists of twelve volumes, and at least four additional volumes have been announced. In the second place, the Report deals with a greater number of aspects than previous reports. It gives great attention to the social scene, to the function of the schools, and to the fundamental objectives which can be promoted by an adequate program in the social studies. In the third place, the Report serves as a challenge to the teacher. It calls upon him to meet his obligations, not by applying a specific formula, but by thorough study and contemplation. Lastly, the Report differs from its predecessors in that it fails to recommend a specific program or to endorse any particular subjects or types of organization.

The Report should be regarded as the work of the whole Commission.<sup>2</sup> While the various volumes were written by the authors whose names appear on them, they were prepared at the request of the Commission, and the authors had the value of the criticism of that group. Presumably each volume was a contribution to the inclusive plan of the Commission. Joint authorship and joint responsibility by the whole group would have involved unreasonable labor on the part of each member. Consequently each author was charged with the preparation of a specified part of the entire Report.

The extent of the Report makes some systematic guide quite desirable if not imperative. The absence of a specific program, or even suggestions on how to

<sup>1</sup> It should be carefully noted that the word "Report" refers to the whole series of volumes and not merely to the *Conclusions and Recommendations*. Speakers, critics, and even reviewers have sometimes erroneously regarded this concluding volume as *the report*.

<sup>2</sup> Four members of the Commission refused to sign the *Conclusions and Recommendations*, but there is no evidence to show that they disapproved of the remainder of the Report; consequently no apology or explanation is necessary for referring to the other volumes as the work of the whole Commission.

make one, increase the need of guidance and interpretation. Wisely or unwisely, the Commission decided to provide a mass of material and to leave to the teacher the task of applying pertinent parts of it to his own particular situation. Regardless of the teacher's wishes or preferences in the matter, he is faced with the rather formidable task of reading several volumes in order to discover the most pertinent portions. In view of its enormous extent, its cost, and its paucity of specific suggestions, the Report is in danger of being neglected by great numbers of teachers. Such neglect would be unfortunate for the teachers and contrary to the wishes and hopes of the Commission. This article, then, has been prepared with the hope of providing a convenient summary or helpful guide.

#### THE ORIGIN OF THE COMMISSION

Among the readjustments incident to the Great War were numbered many alterations in educational programs. Wide differences in purpose, content, organization, and procedures appeared. Various pressure groups demanded the teaching of "Americanization," the passage of "constitution" laws, and the reorganization of our whole educational system. Within the teaching profession itself arose the demand for a more "scientific" curriculum. This period of agitation resulted in diversity, which many regarded as educational confusion. *The History Inquiry* (Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company, 1924) by Edgar Dawson revealed something of the extent of this diversity or confusion. In 1926 a committee of the American Historical Association drew up a plan for thorough survey and study of the situation with a view to making recommendations. This plan, with some modifications made two years later, served as the basis for the work of the Commission, which began its five-year program in January, 1929.

#### THE PERSONNEL OF THE COMMISSION

In the past most national committees have operated under the sponsorship of one organization. This practice naturally resulted in a somewhat restricted view and usually involved the utilization of specialists from only one subject field. The Commission was so constituted as to avoid this limitation, since among its members were four historians, three professors of education, two economists, two political scientists, one professor of the teaching of history, one geographer, one sociologist, one college president, and one superintendent of public schools. The following were members of the Commission during the greater part of its period of functioning.

1. Frank W. Ballou, superintendent of schools, Washington, D.C.
2. Charles A. Beard, formerly professor of politics, Columbia University.
3. Isaiah Bowman, director, American Geographical Society, now president of The Johns Hopkins University.
4. Ada Comstock, president of Radcliffe College.
5. George S. Counts, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University.
6. Avery O. Craven, professor of history, University of Chicago.
7. Edmund E. Day, formerly dean of the School of Business Administration, University

of Michigan; now director of social sciences, Rockefeller Foundation.

8. Guy Stanton Ford, professor of history, dean of the graduate school, University of Minnesota.
9. Carlton J. H. Hayes, professor of history, Columbia University.
10. Ernest Horn, professor of education, University of Iowa.
11. Henry Johnson, professor of history, Teachers College, Columbia University.
12. A. C. Krey, the chairman, professor of history, University of Minnesota.
13. Leon C. Marshall, professor, Institute for the Study of Law, The Johns Hopkins University.
14. Charles E. Merriam, professor of political science, University of Chicago.
15. Jesse H. Newlon, professor of education, Teachers College, Columbia University, director of Lincoln Experimental School.
16. Jesse F. Steiner, professor of sociology, University of Washington.

Evarts B. Greene, professor of history, Columbia University, and William E. Lingelbach, professor of history, University of Pennsylvania, were members of the Commission the first year. Much of the work of the Commission was carried on by a regular staff, some members of which devoted full time to the work. The following constituted the regular staff: A. C. Krey, chairman, director of the investigation, G. S. Counts, research director, W. G. Kimmel, executive secretary, and T. L. Kelley, psychologist, adviser on tests. In addition to the regular staff, more than twenty-five teachers were employed at various times to examine courses of study, for instance, or to compile word lists, analyze textbooks, prepare reports, construct tests, and investigate special problems.

#### THE PROCEDURE OF THE COMMISSION

The member of the Commission constantly referred to their undertaking as an "investigation," and, contrary to the procedure of several antecedent committees, they decided to survey, study, and test extensively before making recommendations. This plan was made possible by a liberal grant from the Carnegie Corporation, and it resulted in the gathering of various types of information for the purpose of guiding the Commission in its deliberations. Meetings of the Commission were frequent and sometimes prolonged. Certain tasks were allocated to special committees, which usually included two, three, or four members outside the Commission itself, so that large numbers of persons with varied experience were utilized. In addition to the deliberations of the Commission, the activities of the staff, and the research of the occasional assistants, a number of persons were asked to prepare or to assist in preparing certain volumes for the Report. At least six of the persons so chosen were not members of the Commission.

#### THE COMMISSION REPORT

The investigation soon yielded a mass of data, much of which could not be published because of its bulk and its limited appeal. Other reports and studies, although useful and temporarily necessary, were also not suitable for publication. The task of the Commission was therefore to synthesize the findings into convenient volumes for the Report. The projected report was to consist of four series of tests and sixteen volumes. The first volume appeared in 1932 and the

*Conclusions and Recommendations* in 1934. Other volumes appeared between these dates and subsequently. The following list contains the names of the volumes that have been published and some citations to reviews or articles concerning each. All of the volumes are published by Charles Scribner's Sons of New York.

- I. Beard, Charles A. *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools*. 1932. Pp. xii, 122. \$1.25. (Hereafter cited as Beard, *Charter*.)  
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 Ray O. Hughes in the *American Political Science Review*, XXVI (October, 1932), 952-953.  
 Harry D. Gideonse in the *Journal of Political Economy*, XLI (August, 1933), 563-565.  
 Howard B. Morris in the *Social Studies*, XXV (March, 1934), 148.
- II. Johnson, Henry. *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences in Schools*. 1932. Pp. vi, 145. \$1.25. (Hereafter cited as Johnson, *Introduction*.)  
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 Howard B. Morris in the *Social Studies*, XXV (March, 1934), 148-149.  
 William E. Lingelbach in the *American Historical Review*, XXXVIII (April, 1933), 721-723.
- III. Pierce, Bessie L. *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth*. 1933. Pp. xvii, 428. \$2.00. (Hereafter cited as Pierce, *Citizens' Organizations*.)  
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 Howard E. Wilson in the *School Review*, XLI (December, 1933), 787-788.  
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- IV. Kelley, Truman L. and Krey, August C. *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences*. 1934. Pp. xiv, 635. \$3.00. (Hereafter cited as Kelley and Krey, *Tests*.)  
 A. S. Edwards in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXI (May, 1935), 397-398.  
 William McAndrew in *School and Society*, XLI (May 4, 1935), 619-620.  
 Harriet H. Shoen in the *Social Studies*, XXVI (October, 1935), 420-421.
- V. Bowman, Isaiah. *Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences*; also in same volume is Clark, Rose B. *Geography in the Schools of Europe*. 1934. Pp. xxii, 227, viii, 229-382. \$2.25. (Hereafter cited as Bowman, *Geography*, or Clark, *Geography in Europe*.)  
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 H. H. Sprout in the *American Political Science Review*, XXVIII (October, 1934), 969.  
 Preston E. James in the *Journal of Geography*, XXXIV (January, 1935), 42.  
 J. Russell Smith in the *Social Studies*, XXVI (January, 1935), 62-64.  
 William McAndrew in *School and Society*, XLI (April 6, 1935), 486.
- VI. Merriam, Charles E. *Civic Education in the United States*. 1934. Pp. xxii, 196. \$1.75. (Hereafter cited as Merriam, *Civic Education*.)  
 Kilian J. Hennrich in *Commonweal*, XX (June 29, 1934), 249-250.  
 A. H. Hoehlman in the *Educational Research Bulletin* (Los Angeles), XIV (April, 1935), 119.
- VII. Beard, Charles A. *The Nature of the Social Sciences*. 1934. Pp. x, 236. \$1.75. (Hereafter cited as Beard, *Nature*.)  
 Harry Elmer Barnes in the *American Historical Review*, XL (October, 1934), 97-99.  
 Edgar B. Wesley in the *Social Studies*, XXVI (February, 1935), 126-132.
- VIII. Newlon, Jesse H. *Educational Administration as Social Policy*. 1934. Pp. xiv, 301. \$2.00. (Hereafter cited as Newlon, *Educational Administration*.)



- Eugene Hilton in the *Social Studies*, XXVI (February, 1935), 138-139.  
 William McAndrew in *School and Society*, XLI (March 2, 1935), 303-304.  
 Morton Snyder in *Survey*, LXXI (August, 1935), 250-251.  
 W. E. Sheffer in the *American Journal of Sociology*, XLI (January, 1936), 547-548.
- IX. Counts, George S. and others. *The Social Foundations of Education*. 1934. Pp. xiv, 579. \$3.00. (Hereafter cited as Counts, *Social Foundations*.)  
 William McAndrew in *School and Society*, XLI (March 2, 1935), 302-303.  
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 Harold U. Faulkner in the *American Historical Review*, XL (July, 1935), 753-755.  
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- X. Curti, Merle. *The Social Ideas of American Educators*. 1935. Pp. xxii, 613. \$3.00. (Hereafter cited as Curti, *Social Ideas*.)  
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 Harold H. Punke in *School Review*, XLIII (October, 1935), 628-630.  
 Daniel C. Knowlton in the *American Historical Review*, XLI (October, 1935), 158-159.  
 John S. Brubacher in the *Social Studies*, XXVI (November, 1935), 489-490.  
 Harrison J. Thornton in the *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXIII (June, 1936), 127-129.  
 William McAndrew in *School and Society*, XLI (April 6, 1935), 480-482.
- XI. Tryon, Rolla M. *The Social Sciences as School Subjects*. 1935. Pp. xiii, 541. \$3.00. (Hereafter cited as Tryon, *Social Sciences*.)  
 Elizabeth A. Weber in the *American Political Science Review*, XXX (February, 1936), 209-210.  
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 William McAndrew in *School and Society*, XLIII (April 4, 1936), 478.
- XII. Beale, Howard K. *Are American Teachers Free?* 2 vols. to appear in 1936. (Hereafter cited as Beale, *Freedom*.)  
 M. G. in the *Social Frontier*, II (March, 1936), 194-195.
- XIII. American Historical Association, Commission on the Social Studies. *Conclusions and Recommendations*. 1934. Pp. xi, 168. \$1.25. (Hereafter cited as *Conclusions*.)  
 Edward C. Lindeman in *Survey Graphic*, XXIII (July, 1934), 343-345.  
 William McAndrew in *School and Society*, XL (July 7, 1934), 29-30.  
 Franklin Bobbitt in the *School Review*, XLII (September, 1934), 547-550.  
 A. S. Barr in the *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVIII (January, 1935), 365-367.  
 Edgar B. Wesley in the *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVIII (January, 1935), 367-368.  
 John S. Brubacher in the *American Historical Review*, XL (January, 1935), 301-305.  
 Percival W. Hutson in the *Elementary School Journal*, XXXV (March, 1935), 549-551.

### EVALUATING THE REPORT

The voluminous nature of the Report raises the question of how to study it most expeditiously. How may the persons charged with the responsibility of making social-studies curricula, most easily and surely, obtain the help that it affords? How may teachers and other readers understand and evaluate it most justly? Three fairly well differentiated approaches present themselves.

First, one might study the Report on the basis of how it compares with the previous reports. What did they contain? What help did they furnish? The report of the Committee of Eight, for example, consisted of:

1. An outline of the contents for each grade.
2. Book lists for teachers and pupils.
3. A discussion of the preparation of the teacher.
4. Suggestions on method.
5. Specimen lesson outlines and plans.
6. The prevailing status of the social studies in the schools.
7. History programs in German, French, and English schools.
8. A bibliography of historical materials.

The use of this comparative method would not imply that the report of the Committee of Eight was a model, nor that a similar report would be adequate today. The method would, however, serve as a guide in searching for the certain pertinent volumes, sections, and pages of the present Report. The definitive and specific nature of the older report is apparent. Its elements stand out. The student of the present Report may thus obtain some suggestions for synthesizing his own reading.

A second approach is offered by the volumes themselves. It is hoped that a careful and systematic reading of them would expand the horizon, deepen the insight, and enrich the experience of every teacher. The danger of relying wholly on reviews, digests, outlines, and comments is very real. One who follows such a course is placing himself in the hands of the reviewer; he is accepting a retold story in place of the original. One who thus avoids the labor may be failing to respond to an important challenge to his professional interests and sacrificing the value that comes from the intelligent expenditure of effort. On the other hand, many teachers find it difficult to obtain the entire set of the Report. Some of the volumes may be of only incidental value to some teachers. Moreover the very extent of the Report makes it difficult to locate and utilize pertinent passages. These and other reasons may be advanced as a justification for utilizing some convenient summary or guide.

A third approach to a study of the Report may be found by superimposing upon it one's own outline of educational procedure. Suppose an educational expert were appointed minister of education in the Kingdom of Erewhon. Suppose also that the new minister had complete power to establish the kind of social studies program that seemed most likely to meet the situation. In such circumstances, what plans should he formulate? What steps should he take? Various answers could be given to these questions. However, any plan drawn up by the new minister would probably provide for a consideration of the following aspects:

1. An analysis of contemporary culture.
2. A survey of social institutions and groups.
3. A summary of the ideals and attitudes of the people.
4. A working philosophy of the function of the schools.
5. The teacher, his training and responsibilities.
6. A survey of current and past curricula.
7. A report on the school programs of other countries.
8. The objectives of the schools, especially of the social studies.
9. The nature of the social sciences and their accommodation to instructional purposes.

10. Principles and techniques for selecting curricular content.
11. Principles and techniques for organizing the content.
12. Principles and techniques for grading the content.
13. A detailed outline of the curriculum.
14. A description of methods.
15. A program of evaluation.
16. A plan for constant revision.

Perhaps the plan that is suggested for the Kingdom of Erewhon will also furnish a touchstone by which to measure other plans. Assuming that it will serve at least as a suggestive guide, let us see to what extent the Commission Report has considered each of these aspects. Recognizing the inevitable limitations of a curriculum report, one can not expect an adequate treatment of these various aspects; the most that can justifiably be expected is a summary of some of them and an awareness of all of them.

1. *Analysis of Contemporary Culture.* In order to function effectively the schools must be adjusted to the society they undertake to serve; and to that end the persons who plan school programs ought to be students of the larger social setting. The Commission Report shows peculiar sensitivity to this aspect and provides information and analyses. The *Charter*, which was formulated and approved by the whole Commission, contains a penetrating analysis of "The Climate of American Ideas" (pp. 52-81). Counts devotes almost an entire volume, *Social Foundations*, to this aspect. His summary of social trends is especially pertinent. He also briefly describes the natural environment that serves as the basis of our national culture (pp. 31-53). Beard also deals with our contemporary culture in terms of trends (*Nature*, chap. vi.). Newlon, in a chapter entitled "Education in the Conflict of Social Forces" (*Educational Administration*, 26-52) incidentally touches on some aspect of our contemporary culture. Merriam describes trends in government and political realism as opposed to formal conceptions (*Civic Education*, chaps. viii, x). The whole Commission gives a vigorous summary of the status of our culture (*Conclusions*, 10-19).

Yet, the Commission did not undertake to describe contemporary culture at great length. It did undertake to indicate the situation clearly and realistically enough to show how it may be considered as conditioning the educational process. The Report contains numerous citations to other studies of contemporary culture, such as the report of President Hoover's committee on *Recent Social Trends* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 2 vols. 1933). If therefore the Report reflects these more inclusive studies and indicates the intimate relation between the social setting and the educational process, it has probably achieved all that ought to be expected on this particular aspect.

2. *Social Institutions and Groups.* It will be recalled that the hypothetical new minister of education in the Kingdom of Erewhon decided that he needed not only a description of contemporary culture but also a view of the social institutions and groups that functioned to make effective or ineffective whatever social or educational plans were devised. But society in the aggregate is difficult to survey.

However desirable it may be to study a whole society, experience seems to have demonstrated that this can only be done by an examination of the various institutions and agencies that constitute society. The Commission has, then, provided for the study of the agencies and groups that can be counted as definitely influencing social processes. Counts describes our social institutions, such as the family and recreation, and he shows how their functions are rapidly changing (*Social Foundations*, Part II). Newlon describes the conflict of some of these social groups and how their struggles affect the schools (*Educational Administration*, 26-52). Pierce devotes a whole volume, *Citizens' Organizations*, to the activities of groups that seek to influence the educational system.

3. *Ideals and Attitudes of the People.* The Report has devoted considerable attention to the ideals and attitudes of the people, for it is obvious that in the long run they will determine not only the objectives of school instruction but also the curriculum itself. The most extensive treatment of this topic is found in Curti's *Social Ideas*, in which he traces the development of social thought with respect to education. He treats with reasonable fullness the social views of ten educational leaders, such as Mann, Barnard, and W. T. Harris. Newlon devotes a chapter to the social ideas and attitudes of school administrators (*Educational Administration*, chap. vii.), Merriam writes a chapter to show how better results can be achieved through planning and co-operation (*Civic Education*, chap. xi). Many of the attitudes and ideas of various pressure groups are revealed in the statements of their purposes (Pierce, *Citizens' Organizations*). Counts describes the democratic tradition and makes a vigorous plea for the realization of more of our national ideals (*Social Foundations*, 9-30, 507-531). While Beard's *Charter* is primarily a statement of educational objectives, it also deals with the ideas and ideals that have grown up in American society. The Commission summarizes what it regards as the "choices deemed possible and desirable in American life" (*Conclusions*, 19-27). Throughout the Report great emphasis is placed upon the acceptance of the democratic ideal.

4. *The Function of the Schools.* The function of the school in society must inevitably be a changing one. From a relatively simple agency for training pupils in the basic skills, it has become an arm of the government and also an agency for social control. This expanding and changing process calls for repeated attempts to clarify its status in the contemporary scene. The Report has some penetrating analyses of this problem. Newlon approves of a planned program for the schools, one that will tie them closely to high social purposes (*Educational Administration*, chaps. iv, x). He also urges that the administration of our schools be regarded and treated as "applied social science." Curti in *Social Ideas* describes many ways in which the schools have functioned in the past. In his penetrating summary at the close of the volume he shows that there is quite an old and well defined tradition for regarding "the school as a social institution as well as an agent for transmitting culture" (p. 581). Counts describes the rôle schools should play, and he makes concrete suggestions for the strengthening of the social studies (*Social Foundations*, 532-563). Throughout his volume on *Civic Educa-*

tion Merriam shows the relationships that exist between the schools and the government. The function of the school is vigorously summarized by the Commission (*Conclusions*, 119-143).

5. *The Teacher*. The importance of the teacher is stressed in this *Report* as in no previous one. Newlon discusses the social and educational background of the teacher, his professional status, his subordinate position in the school system, and his possible achievement of a more responsible status (*Educational Administration*, 170-202). Merriam devotes a brief chapter to the education and civic qualifications of the teacher (*Civic Education*, chap. xii). A two-volume work is devoted to the teacher's place in society and particularly to his efforts to maintain his intellectual and professional integrity (Beale, *Freedom*). A projected volume on the selection and training of the teacher has not yet been published. The Commission has described the ideal teacher and listed the conditions that must prevail, if he is to attain such an ideal (*Conclusions*, 77-84, 103-118, 126-128). It prescribes intensive and extensive training, economic security, suitable working conditions, active participation in the life of society, and reasonable freedom as the conditions of professional competence. The section contains sharp criticisms of the highly specialized and relatively unrelated courses of some social-science departments and of the numerous courses in method in many teacher-training institutions. The Commission recommends the abandonment of the conception of a distinct science of education.

6. *Present and Past Curricula*. The individuals asked to prepare a social-studies curriculum for the schools in the mythical Kingdom of Erewhon would naturally want to know both the present status and past practices in this respect. Those charged with a similar responsibility in the United States need to have similar information. Has the Commission on the Social Studies provided it? Johnson in his *Introduction* has given a highly condensed series of pictures of the history curriculum in Europe. Tryon has furnished a digest and an enormous number of tables concerning the teaching of all the social studies except geography (*Social Sciences*, 75-425). From this volume the reader can obtain a fairly specific picture of the social-studies curriculum in American schools at various periods since 1870. The latest reports give a view of the present situation. Some information on current curricular offerings is also furnished by Krey (Kelley and Krey, *Tests*, 122-125).

7. *School Programs in Other Countries*. A survey of the school programs of other countries may or may not be significant for American schools. The Commission apparently regarded it as of relatively minor significance, although the chairman provided each member with copies of the reports of the International Committee on the Teaching of History. Clark presents an excellent account of geography in the school programs of the major countries of Europe (*Geography in Europe*, bound with Bowman, *Geography*). Her report discusses methods as well as content. Johnson in his *Introduction* gives some information concerning the teaching of history in Europe during past centuries.

8. *Objectives of the Social Studies*. The Commission devotes some attention



and space to objectives. Beard in the *Charter* summarizes the discussions of the Commission and presents a statement of social and individual objectives of instruction in the social studies. In his *Nature of the Social Sciences* he discusses the educational objectives and presents an outline of the informational objectives for each subject (pp. 157-230). Tabular lists of the personal objectives are also given. A vigorous and challenging statement of social objectives is given in the *Conclusions* (pp. 20-26).

9. *Nature of the Social Sciences.* The maker of a curriculum must have some understanding of the scholarly reservoirs from which he expects to draw. He himself must be scholarly enough to evaluate the social sciences and skillful enough in educational procedure to adapt the materials to the needs of pupils. In other words he must be able to select from adult materials and adapt to instructional needs. Beard defines the social sciences and shows the standards they must maintain (*Nature*, 1-121; *Charter*, 4-21). The Commission has, without using the terminology, drawn a clear distinction between the social sciences and the social studies (*Conclusions* 6-10). The careful student of the Report is thus prepared to recognize the results of scholarship and to consider the steps by which he can transpose these results into instructional materials.

10. *Selecting Curricular Content.* Having tried to become a careful student of the social sciences, the teacher must next formulate principles and devise techniques for effecting this translation of material. What materials are most likely to be effective in achieving the desired objectives, and how shall they be chosen? The problem is of paramount importance, for it is the first overt step in building a curriculum. A projected volume of the Report that promises to exemplify this process of selecting material has not yet appeared. Beard lists the suggested content, but he supplies only the one principle of objectives and gives no techniques by which others might proceed to select content (*Nature*, 195-225). Counts also outlines the content of the social studies (*Social Foundations*, 549-555). The Commission (*Conclusions*, 44-67) lists five principles, all of which have long been known, and none of which is exemplified anywhere in the Report. The most specific statement concerning procedure is as follows: "In the selection and organization of social science materials the teaching staff of the country, co-operating with the social scientists and the representatives of the public, should assume complete professional responsibility and, resisting the pressure of every narrow group or class, make choices in terms of the most general and enduring interests of the masses of the people" (*Conclusions*, 49). This quixotic suggestion can scarcely be regarded as a practicable plan for making a curriculum in Jonesburg or Greenville. The conclusion is that the Report as it now stands provides no specific guidance for selecting materials, even though it does furnish a philosophy for the task.

11. *Organization of Content.* On the question of general organization of courses in the curricula, that is, whether on the one hand to utilize existing subjects, or on the other hand to adopt some kind of correlation, fusion, or problems approach, the Report affords no clear and unequivocal answer. Beard

seems to deny the possibility of a "subliminal coalescence" and emphasizes the integrity of the separate subjects (*Charter*, 21). The summary by the Commission will indicate its stand (*Conclusions*, 66-67).

1. The Commission refuses to endorse any detailed scheme of organization as best calculated to accomplish the purposes above stated and as suited in one precise form to the schools of the entire country.

2. The Commission believes that, within the limits of the general principles outlined above, considerable variety of adaptation to local conditions is both possible and desirable, but that specific recommendations for any school system should be made by competent teachers in the social sciences in consultation with able scholars.

3. Since some frame of reference, clarified or confused as the case may be, does in fact control the selection and organization of materials, it is obvious that any professional or pedagogical method of selecting and organizing materials, professedly applicable to all subjects and guaranteed to produce "results," is formalistic self-deception.

4. The major task of the social-science teacher is to clarify his purposes and adjust the substance of his instruction to those purposes, bringing to the members of the younger generation a body of thoroughly relevant knowledge, thought and appreciation, and developing in them power for equally relevant thought and action.

On the question of the specific organization of material the Report presents some material. Tryon devotes a long section to the history of various types of organization (*Social Sciences*, 429-529). While no type is recommended, the careful reader can derive ideas as to desirable procedures for organizing materials.

12. *The Grading of Materials*. The Commission emphasizes the desirability of a well graded course, one that is "marked by steady progression from year to year" (*Conclusion*, 55-62, 74). The materials for the elementary and secondary schools are indicated. There is no listing of content by grades. Another volume presents a description and an analysis of the learning process in the social studies (Kelley and Krey, *Tests*, 13-16, 45-53, 113-119, 474-479, 158-182). These passages go far toward giving reality and specificity to the vague, general principles of learning presented by the educational psychologist. The pages last cited exemplify a technique of grading on the basis of test results.

13. *The Curriculum*. Just as the minister of education in the hypothetical Kingdom of Erewhon would have to devise a curriculum, so must the American teachers build actual working programs. Previous committees and commissions in the United States suggested definite programs; but the present Commission feared that such a recommended program might lead to stereotyped uniformity. In view of this policy it would be hazardous here to present a program and to label it as the one suggested or implied by the Commission. Some readers have been able to infer a program from certain passages in the *Conclusions* (pp. 57-62).

14. *Methods of Teaching*. Methods are susceptible of study and examination just as are all human ideas and systems. They can be described, classified, and manipulated in the same manner as other concepts. While methods do not function apart from pupil and content, they constitute a separate entity for study and very properly require the attention of prospective teachers. Books have been written to describe methods and to show how they can be applied. Teachers can

testify to the efficacy of these treatises. Johnson has written a little volume, *Introduction*, much of which is concerned with a description of the past methods of teaching history. The Commission has provided for a separate volume on methods, but it has not yet appeared.

On the basis of this plan, one would suppose that the Commission would endorse the sentiments of the preceding paragraph, but various passages in the *Conclusions* (pp. 69-71, 84) give one the opposite impression:

1. Faith in method, divorced from knowledge, thought, and purpose, has long been the besetting sin of pedagogy in the United States. Whether in the sphere of classroom teaching, curriculum construction, testing procedures, or school administration, the consideration of substance and values is all too often subordinated to method and technique.

2. This devotion to method and technique *per se* is revealed in the interest aroused by the invention of a new or the rediscovery of an old pedagogical device, in the heated discussions at educational meetings over the relative merits of competing "methods," in the spread of various techniques for the "objective" determination of programs of civic training, and in the time, energy, and money consumed in the construction of tests, scales, score-cards, outlines, units, and stereotypes of one kind or another.

3. This obsession with formalistic methodology has also manifested itself very generally in the programs of teacher-training institutions. During the past generation these institutions have tended to overload their curricula with courses in the mechanics of instruction and administration, have directed their attention too largely to the refinement and super-refinement of techniques, have neglected the more fundamental problems of purpose, thought, value and content and have lamentably failed to coördinate training in teaching procedure with scholarship in subject matter. Being absorbed in improving the mechanics of the educative process, they have unwittingly accepted social conceptions and purposes inherited from the past.

4. When all is said that can be said concerning method, the great teacher defies analysis. He can neither be defined, nor his method dissected or described; but whoever comes into his presence feels the power of a human spirit.

On the other hand the Commission describes (*Conclusions*, 68-84) the factors that condition method and declares that the question is not "without importance." It recommends that the "competent teacher strive to emulate, even though his powers be relatively feeble, the methods of great thinkers and teachers of all ages" (p. 83).

15. *Evaluating the Results of Instruction.* The public, school administrators, and teachers are agreed that attempts should be made to evaluate the school program. Any evaluation, deferred until the pupils have reached adult life is entirely too late to influence existing curricula. Attempts to measure results must therefore go hand in hand with the educational procedure. Unfortunately evaluation has become almost a synonym for examination; examination has become a test; and the test has become the objective. The effectiveness of teaching is therefore measured by the results of such tests.

The Commission took full cognizance of the development of tests and sought faithfully to utilize them to their fullest capacity. It authorized the construction of several tests and the publication of four. These tests are available for use in the schools. Whatever values they have are thus passed on to a larger audience. Kelley and Krey with the assistance of several contributors prepared a volume,

*Tests*, in which they discuss the possibilities and limitations of tests in the social studies. It contains description, analyses, and detailed reports concerning the preparation of tests. Perhaps attention should also be called to the extensive and carefully selected list of social terms that appears in the appendix of the volume.

The Commission summarizes its findings with respect to tests (*Conclusions*, 86-101, esp. 94, 96, 97, 99, 100). It declares that the intelligence test has a very limited usefulness and offers little or no social guidance.

In their efforts to measure environment, conduct, honesty, good citizenship, service, knowledge of right and wrong, self-control, will, temperament, and judgment, the testers are dealing with matters that are not susceptible of mathematical description. The assignment of mathematical values to ethical and aesthetic experiences is meaningless to contemporary social knowledge and thought.

From the standpoint of the teaching of the social sciences, the new-type tests for measuring the results of instruction in scholastic terms and in the lower ranges of social knowledge and thought constitute the only significant contribution of the testing movement.

The experience of social science teachers with new-type tests indicates that such tests are competent to test, for academic purposes, memory of facts, a partial understanding (definition) of terms used in social studies, at least in some relations, and certain logical, discriminatory, and associational powers.

Where the new-type tests are chiefly relied upon two major evils are sure to emerge—the placing of a fictitious rating on the student who is clever at learning the “tricks of the trade,” and the encouragement of students to go to college or into life without ever having to put forth continuous and constructive effort in *thinking* and *writing* in the fields of history, political science, economics, sociology, and human relations.

The use by administrative officers of the findings of objective tests in grading and promoting teachers encourages the latter to concentrate on the mechanical aspects of learning, thought, and study. When they form the sole or major basis for judgment they are a menace to education.

The general emphasis in these tests on vocabulary encourages reliance on verbalism rather than thought, and leads to the acquisition of words rather than to growth in understanding and competence in the realm of social relationships.

The assumption that new-type tests can guide and measure the efficiency of instruction in the social sciences is based on misconceptions of social processes, and such tests, except where used as occasional checks on other examining methods, do positive damage to the minds and powers of children in the ways already indicated.

16. *Future Revision*. It will be recalled that the new minister of education in the Kingdom of Erewhon might wish to provide for future revisions of his program. Has the Commission likewise visualized the need for further efforts? The answer is that it has. Repeatedly it points out the need of co-operation between teachers and scholars. It suggests a vigorous leadership on the part of school boards, administrators, teachers, and all those interested in education (*Conclusions*, 145-148). It indicates its plan of sponsoring a magazine to carry on the work of the Commission. It calls on textbook writers to revise their texts “in accordance with this frame of reference.” It asks curriculum makers to rewrite syllabi and teacher-training institutions to “provide for prospective teachers courses of instruction in general harmony with the Commission’s frame of reference” (p. 147).

## CRITICISMS OF THE REPORT

The Commission Report appeared during a period of economic distress and educational unrest. Previous reports of learned organizations were received somewhat willingly and appreciatively by school people. Appearing before the scientific movement in education had reached any great proportions, these reports found a receptive hearing. The day of humble acceptance, however, seems to have passed, and the Commission Report met a critical reception from teachers and administrators. Professional educators asserted their right to pass judgment. In these circumstances it is not surprising that all types of criticisms have been made of the Report. Some of them, rephrased by the author of this article, appear as follows:

1. The Report is conservative and not constructive.
2. The *Conclusions* is a radical document.
3. The *Conclusions* is a mass of inconsistencies.
4. The *Conclusions* is filled with emotional phrases.
5. The *Conclusions* is marked by deep prejudices.
6. The Commission contained no elementary or secondary school teachers.
7. The Report is a series of scholarly volumes of no practical utility to school people.
8. The Commission seeks to indoctrinate American boys and girls.
9. The Report contains nothing that can be utilized directly by the classroom teacher.
10. The Commission needlessly confuses the reader by using the phrases *social sciences* and *social studies* as synonyms.
11. The Commission proposes no program; nothing can be done in accordance with its proposals, for nothing is proposed.
12. The Commission's pronouncements on tests would have been antiquated twenty years ago.
13. The Commission seems to think that methods deserve no serious attention.
14. The Commission hides its uncertain meaning in unusual and ornate phrases.
15. The Commission delegated its obligations to individual authors and collectively assumes no responsibility.
16. The Commission apparently expects the social studies to cure civic ills, remould character, and remake society.
17. The Report is a disappointment and leaves us just where we were before it appeared.
18. The Commission calls on teachers to do what it was created to do for them.
19. The Commission is prejudiced and unfair in its pronouncements concerning tests, methods, and teacher training.
20. The *Conclusions* is a collection of generalities with no specific or definite plan.
21. The Commission ignores the whole problem of individual differences.
22. The *Conclusions* is written in a pontifical and condescending manner.
23. The *Conclusions* is a highly emotionalized essay, filled with condemnatory phrases, rather than a reasoned and documented report.

While the foregoing list indicates something of the range of the criticisms, it does not indicate their central tendencies. Most of them tend to center around one of four points, (1) the "frame of reference," (2) "collectivism," (3) tests, and (4) the lack of a definite program for the schools. The Commission describes and analyzes the contemporary situation, and the philosophy, viewpoint, or attitude revealed in this analysis is designated as the "frame of reference." The phrase itself seems to have annoyed readers and commentators.



and, moreover, the Commission was accused of deserting scientific objectivity and of setting up a rigid set of principles, which it undertook to thrust upon the schools. The "frame of reference" was thus interpreted as an attempt at direct indoctrination. "Collectivism" is the word used by the Commission in describing the highly integrated economic life of today. The word has been interpreted as proving that the Commission is "Radical," "Socialistic," or "Communitic," although critics apparently cannot decide as to whether the word "collectivism" describes, prophesies, or advocates. The sharp criticisms that the Commission makes of tests have called forth counter-criticisms of equal vigor. The pronouncements concerning intelligence tests, homogeneous grouping, and attitude tests aroused more than one critic, who pointed out (a) that the Commission was guilty of the straw-man argument, (b) that it missed the real reason for the growth of tests, (c) that it sought to drag in a red herring by its repeated statement that the real test of school programs was the later conduct of the pupils, (d) that it had next to no evidence to justify its denunciation of homogeneous grouping, and (e) that all the valid criticisms of tests apply with equal force to essay examinations. For fuller discussions of these points the reader is referred to the reviews cited in the earlier part of this article. Teachers and administrators are almost a unit in lamenting the omission from the Report of some kind of definite program. Many seem to feel that whatever good there is in the Report will lack vitality and force because it finds no embodiment in a curriculum. Other teachers and administrators, however, agree to some extent with the Commission but believe the Commission should have provided at least some general pattern in accordance with which teachers could write the detailed program. All agree that further efforts must be made.

#### COMMENDATIONS OF THE REPORT

In direct contrast to the unfavorable criticisms of the Report, several writers have praised it highly, and even its critics have usually conceded that it contains some good points. The favorable comments are, however, less extensive and also less specific than the criticisms. Some of these favorable comments, also rephrased by the author of this article, appear as follows:

1. The Report is a courageous and inspiring series of volumes.
2. The *Conclusions* is a great social document.
3. The Report demands greater freedom for the teacher.
4. The *Conclusions* is a bold declaration of independence for the teacher.
5. The "frame of reference" that the Commission presents is both realistic and idealistic.
6. The Commission recommends a society-centered curriculum.
7. The Commission furnishes the solid foundations for a social studies curriculum.
8. The Report clarifies the social situation into which the schools must fit.
9. The Report lays merited stress upon the social obligations of school administrators.
10. The Report provides a storehouse of information and theory from which the thoughtful teacher can draw for many years.
11. The Report clarifies the nature and function of the social sciences.
12. The Report marks a milestone in the development of social studies teaching.
13. The Report presents a strong case for democracy, economic and social, as well as political.

14. The Commission has revitalized teaching by recalling its personal and artistic aspects.
15. The Commission has performed a much needed service by insisting upon the need for scholarship.

The central tendencies of favorable comments concerning the Report point toward its attempt to elevate the outlook of the teacher, its enlightened social viewpoint, and its interpretation of the place of the school in the social order. The Commission stresses the need for highly competent teachers, well trained in subject matter, and sensitive to their obligations to society. In order to obtain such teachers, the profession must be assured of adequate pay, reasonable tenure, and social responsibility. The Commission calls upon the teachers to form a strong and vigorous organization through which they can effect the improvement of their profession. The Commission has been accorded hearty words of commendation for its demands for an improved social order. The plea for economic justice and a high order of public service has appealed to many as proof that the teaching profession can become an influential factor in American life. The "frame of reference" has been endorsed as a competent and inclusive statement of high social ideals. The exact status of the schools in the social order is always a perplexing problem. It is one on which the Commission has expended energy effectively. The Report shows not only how the schools can serve society but how in the long run they can make society.

# The Challenge of Individual Differences

NEIL C. ROBINSON

*Junior High School, Reading, Massachusetts*

John Staso is still in school because there is no work; he is dull in history, a slow learner, inept in understanding cause and effect, and helpless in dealing with thought questions. John Stark, on the other hand, a vital type of boy who can assimilate, correlate, and easily master information, is blessed with initiative and imagination. Staso will master rudimentary learning skills, perhaps become a mill hand and follower, while Stark has already acquired many learning skills, will eventually specialize his training, and perhaps become a leader. They represent the anomaly of a highly democratized system of education. And what a challenge they unconsciously hurl at the teacher! The challenge to teach efficiently has resulted in a variety of methods. This state of flux worries some educators, but the fact that the problem is being tackled on many sides is a healthy sign. That the sign has not been seen by many teachers, who are still concentrating on tradition's pathway, should arouse concern. Meanwhile, however, John Staso and John Stark sit next to each other in the tenth-grade world history class in an industrial town, and they have unwittingly demanded a course that provides for individual differences.

The course consists of twelve-unit work sheets, each of which carries such familiar items as the introductory overview, objectives, preview questions, bibliography, minimum requirement in the form of an outline of questions, map work, vocabulary, and additional activities. This layout is culled from various sources and molded into a unit of material designed to meet the needs, interests, and abilities of the pupils of this community. A time schedule, given with each unit, shows the average progress to be made throughout the study of the unit and enables each pupil to budget his time accordingly. By bringing the class to a mass completion of the required work, more effective discussion, review, activity work, and testing can be accomplished during the closing days of the unit. Yet how can one expect Staso and Stark to complete their work at the same time?

Early in the school year the class is divided into three elastic groups: X, Y, and Z. One might use C, B, and A. To the teacher X, Y, and Z mean dull, average, and bright. To the pupil it is tactfully explained that the X group naturally progresses more slowly and therefore can cover less ground, that the Y group progress is average, and that the Z group progress is naturally rapid, therefore more work is to be assigned to its members. Assignment to a group is determined from an estimation and rating based on the pupil's I.Q., previous scholarship, and the teacher's observation during the first unit. Staso, whose I.Q. of 85 and average of 68 in his freshman year corroborate the teacher's observation in class, is put in the X group. Others who have mediocre I.Q's. but are ambitious, or those who have fairly high I.Q's. but poor reading ability and English difficulties, are put in the middle Y group. Stark, of course, clearly belongs in the Z group. There is no definite dividing line. The class

knows that the grouping is flexible, that some will move from one to another, that the grouping is helpful because it means that history can be accommodated to the individual's course-load in school, or working hours out of school. Questionnaires show that the pupils feel they have an equal chance for success in world history. John Staso has noticeably developed more self-confidence. Also, pupils sense a distinct reward in being re-grouped from X to Y, and from Y to Z. Oppositely, there are times when a demotion acts as an incentive to climb again. Although the work for each group is definite, there is always an opportunity for X or Y group pupils to try the additional activities designed for the capable Z group. John Staso's cousin is also in the X group, but he has a latent imagination and may do an additional exercise, when he has the time and the urge. John Stark's cousin has the qualifications for Z group, but she starts in Y group because she is hasty and careless, and makes thoughtless mistakes.

In order to show how the X, Y, and Z groups use the unit-work sheet let us consider, as an example, Unit Ten, which covers European history between 1815 and 1871. Its title is "The Progress of Democracy Promotes Nationalism." It is a concept to be mastered by the class. Staso will know what Progress is, have a hazy notion about Democracy, and Nationalism will merely have a good sound. Stark would hazard a definition of Nationalism. The members of the group between will not even make a guess, but when its meaning and implication become known they will understand it readily.

(1) The introduction is an overview that should orient all pupils and give them a general idea of the ground to be covered in Unit Ten.

(2) The four objectives are discussed and explained briefly. Each objective acts as a telescope with which the X and Y group pupils can scan a section of the unit assignment, when the trees of the outline and the textbooks get too thick. Also the objectives are more than observation posts to the Z group, for they are the required work. John Stark will consider thoughtfully the objective, "To note how fruitless were the attempts of absolutism against the rising tide of democracy" and then wade into at least three textbooks on the reference shelf, jot down notes, arrange the information, and write an essay type paper to explain that objective. He will usually show spirit and originality in presenting his information, especially if he feels the words "fruitless" and "rising tide."

(3) The preview questions, following, touch modern phases of problems to be dealt with in the unit. They are an attempt to discover what the pupil already knows, and offer an opportunity for open discussion, as well as for motivation. Staso could cope with, "What are the voting restrictions in the United States?" whereas, "Are Germany and Italy becoming more or less democratic today? Give examples." would be more within Stark's reach, because he reads the newspapers and listens to Lowell Thomas.

(4) Unit Ten lists seven books for its bibliography. Earlier units gave the books and pages after each section in the outline, for the skill of readily locating information had not yet been acquired.

(5) The body of the work sheet is made up of an outline of questions

designed to serve as sign posts during the pupil's study. A portion of Unit Ten is included here to show how the material is organized.

III. Democracy progresses without revolution in England.

A. Parliamentary reforms.

1. Explain the reform that demonstrated religious toleration.
2. List the conditions that were in need of reform in 1832.
3. Study sections 460-1 in Elson and be able to tell how the Reform Bill would have been put through our own congressional system.

John Staso and his X-group comrades are expected to cover the ground and to be able to answer in writing, for review purposes, four-fifths of the outline. For Staso, such a question as "Why did England propose the Monroe Doctrine idea to the United States?" is omitted, because it is complicated, he will never use the information, and it seems more important for him to know the plain facts about the Doctrine without confusion. Y group writes the answers to all the questions. Stark and his Z groupers are responsible for knowing the information suggested by the outline but do not write it. As explained before the members of the Z group write detailed answers to the objectives, and in preparing for this they cover the outline material. During the study of the outline the teacher has the usual opportunities of supervised study periods to check work for errors and incompleteness, assist the pupils, and note their progress. This greatly eliminates the tendency for one pupil to copy another's paper. The study period is, occasionally, interrupted to give explanations, use maps, motivate, or give short quizzes to guide remedial instruction.

(6) A vocabulary of terms and names, and often map work, completes the requirement.

(7) While the X and Y groups are doing the minimum requirements the Z group has finished its essentials and is engaged in working out a few additional activities. These activities are designed to foster originality through plays, cartoons, poems, letters, and to appeal to the less imaginative through short themes or floor talks on people, news articles, comparative lists, debates, drawings, or cross-word puzzles. Such additional work is divided into two groups, B and A. The first group requires less study and originality, and the satisfactory completion of two exercises carries B credit. For A credit, the B exercises and one of the more difficult problems of the second group must be done. John Stark had enough time, after covering the required work, to write a short play about Bismarck and the altered telegram. Occasionally, these exercises are attempted by X and Y groupers if they have satisfactorily completed the minimum requirement in advance of the schedule. John Staso's cousin wanted to try his luck with a suggested cartoon "Cavour, the Bootmaker," and Stark's cousin wanted to get extra credit by trying to write a poem in which a person might find inspiration to assist the Greeks, against the Turks, in regaining their past culture and independence.

The groupings remain somewhat flexible in fairness to the diligence, goal, or individual improvement of pupils, as well as to the variation of their other



duties. It has been found that the amount and quality of the work described in this manuscript has made it possible to bring each unit to a close without unduly burdening the pupils or allowing them to loaf. Regrouping of the class is made, on the other hand, as often as once a month.

Working for a mark is minimized, yet few pupils are content to do their work without receiving one. John Staso can earn up to a C on his outline, the Y group up to a B, and John Stark up to an A. The vocabulary and map work, if complete and correct, uphold the outline mark, otherwise the mark is decreased. The additional activity work, if accepted, automatically earns B or A for the pupil. Short quizzes are recorded but are not averaged for they are used to "check up," not to penalize. The final objective test completes the marking for the unit.

Formulating and using such unit work sheets as those described here has practically eliminated failure. The course is admittedly "not easy," yet of seventy-five students in last year's classes only one failed. John Staso is passing, is comparatively interested, and has shown progress. The standards set up for John Stark have produced gratifying results, primarily because two boys sitting next to each other in a history class, and having similar names, have not been obliged to meet identical requirements.

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# Economic Fallacies and the Classroom

GEORGE O. HESS

*Iowa State Employment Service, Burlington, Iowa*

The purpose of this article is not to add another tirade to what has already been written against the tendency of pupils and even teachers to believe everything they read. All teachers have far too much experience with pupils who "quote the book" without analyzing the reasons stated in the book, and who strive for the expected rather than the true answer. Too many teachers never allow pupils to differ from the text or from themselves; and too many believe that all their class discussions must lead to a conclusion.

The purpose of this article is, then, the prosaic one of trying to tell about some of the efforts of the writer, who was until recently a classroom teacher of economics, to overcome these weaknesses in teaching and to try to find a way to make the teaching of economics vital through the study of economic fallacies appearing in economic literature.

The teaching of economics in secondary schools ought not to interest itself in drilling definitions, adding to the student vocabulary, or in teaching "laws" by rote if not by heart. Especially this ought not to be its purpose in a world faced by difficult if not insoluble problems of adjustment, problems that have arisen largely owing to the application of false economic theories. In a governmental system such as our own it is possible to apply sound economic policies to government affairs only if such action is supported by a body of public opinion trained in economic thought which knows good from bad economic theory, or at least knows something of possible pitfalls and is therefore willing to trust to the judgment of leaders trained in the history and theory of economic philosophy. The proper task of a teacher of economics is to train pupils to help form such a body of opinion.

There is a very real danger in uncritical current-events study and the uncritical use of current periodical material, which both create and reflect current superstitions and prejudices. In order to find out what proportion was false in popular economic thought, as judged by the economic pronouncements in popular periodical literature, the writer made a list of fallacies culled from courses he had taken, from textbooks and other books and magazine articles, and from pamphlets of propaganda such as those of the Townsend plan. From this list, adding to it as he went along, he counted the fallacious statements in two magazines and newspapers. For this purpose he used the *Saturday Evening Post* and the *Literary Digest*, chosen because of their circulation and number of economic articles, the *Chicago Tribune*, chosen for the same reason, and the *Hibbing* (Minnesota) *Daily Tribune*, chosen as an example of a country newspaper. He studied all issues of the magazines, but of the newspapers only issues selected at, usually, eight-day intervals from the middle of September, 1933, to the first of June, 1934. The number of references were counted, each reference counted but once to an article. On such a basis thirty-eight per cent of the economic references

in the *Literary Digest* during the school year 1933-34 were fallacious<sup>1</sup> and twenty-three per cent of the economic references in the *Saturday Evening Post* during this period were fallacious. The fact that the false references are often quotations for which the editorial policy of the paper cannot be held responsible did not lessen their effect on the students.

It has seemed important to indicate the relative frequency of occurrence of each fallacy and to make some attempt to analyze the underlying causes for existence of the fallacies. The frequency of occurrence is a matter of fact ascertained by actually counting and is indicated by numbers in parentheses, which are the rank orders of frequency (not the number of occurrences). Repetition of numbers and the use of " $\frac{1}{2}$ " indicate equal frequency. The analysis of causes, must, of course, be regarded as more or less a matter with which the reader may or may not agree. It is here discussed in the hope that teachers may be stimulated to such an analysis and discussion in their own classes.

One of the most common causes of fallacious economic thought lies in self-interest, or in perhaps a sincere confusion between the interests of the individual and the interests of society in general. During the depression, we have all become familiar with the business men who have favored the Reconstruction Finance Corporation on the grounds that the welfare of business is the welfare of society; farmers who argued that, since their industry is basic, it is essential for the government to help it; Communists who argued that labor is the only productive factor worthy of reward; and school teachers who argued that the training of future generations is the most important of national activities. It seems probable that fallacies are due at least partly to such confusion of private and public interest; but the following fallacies seem to rest primarily on selfish interest, and all parties are guilty of the same kind of distorted reasoning:

(8) That territorial division of labor should be avoided. That governments or people of certain districts should "buy at home" though the cost or quality of foreign produced goods is better. That the tariff should be set to equalize the cost of production between countries. That government subsidies of industry to discourage dependence on foreign industry are good.

(13) That government subsidies to special business or professional groups lead to more rather than less efficient economic adjustment. That class legislation does not decrease industrial efficiency through interference with "survival of the fittest" among industries.

(15) That protective tariffs, quotas, or embargoes are good.

(17 $\frac{1}{2}$ ) That competition is bad. That monopoly is good. That the best industrial adjustment will be reached by universal supply control to bring each industry the greatest possible profit.

(20) That prices should be set to equalize the price of what one sells with what one buys, or to maintain a ratio to each other. That the income of some group or of all should vary directly with a price index.

(24) That reflation is worse than the injustice of deflation or of maintaining deflation.

(30 $\frac{1}{2}$ ) Incorrect use of the word "dumping" as a way of condemning policies that are not detrimental—as using it to mean selling goods from abroad at less than the domestic cost of

<sup>1</sup> The number of economic references for this comparison was estimated from a previous study: George O. Hess, "Economics in the Press," *Historical Outlook*, XXIII (November, 1932), 350-354; and George O. Hess, *Economics in the Press*, Thesis (M.A.), State University of Iowa, 1932.

production though at a profit for the actual producer, or using it to mean currency depreciation or a low price of foreign bills of exchange.

(38) That imports hurt the wages of workmen of the importing country or depress their standard of living (An argument invented to win labor support by interests which wished the tariff for other reasons.)

(46½) That a falling price level to adjust exports to imports is bad. That a falling price of American bills of exchange abroad is bad for America.

(56) That the United States is known to be in a period of decreasing returns, making immigration harmful.

(56) That low wages are economically beneficial or high wages detrimental.

(56) That non property owners do not pay taxes. That taxes may not be passed on.

(61½) That labor is the most important productive agent.

Another important group of fallacies rests on a desire to apply to a realistic and changing economic world certain moral, emotional, or static customs. Ideas of "fair" prices and "fair" wages and "fair" rent and "fair" profits engender unwise agitation and unwise laws. Insofar as these ideas influence enterprisers, employers, and landlords they hinder that adjustment of supply to demand which is prosperity. Insofar as they cause trade associations, large corporations, labor organizations, or farmers to try to achieve certain prices or wages by supply manipulations or market manipulations they hinder that economic adjustment which is the best good of the greatest number. Price, wage, rent, and profit-fixing schemes may well be among the causes of the much deplored phenomenon of "poverty amidst plenty." The influence of such concepts may be found not only in some of the "self interest" fallacies mentioned above but also in the following false economic notions:

(1) That fiat wage fixing is good or feasible. That wages should not be affected by the "Law of Supply and Demand."

(5) That price fixing of commodities contrary to the "Law of Supply and Demand" is good, or feasible, or working.

(15) That costs should, can, or have directly determined prices. That taxes which drive out no marginal producers are passed on to consumers (usually referring to income, inheritance, or excess profits taxes.)

(28½) That fiat interest fixing is good.

(38) That doing something about bad economic conditions is necessarily better than doing nothing.

(38) That there is an "intrinsic" or "fair" value. That prices should be based on "fairness" rather than on the market. That prices should be based on a "fair" return to the entrepreneur.

(38) That employers should be forced to hire and discharge for such reasons as unionism, seniority, or local residence rather than according to individual merit.

(46½) That spending as a people less than we receive is a fundamental principle of social welfare.

(46½) That profits are a useless charge on industry.

(46½) That fiat profit fixing is good.

(46½) That wages are determined by the standard of living demanded by the workers, rather than by the laws of the market.

(61½) That promotion should be based on seniority.

Another source of error, held in common by civilized men and primitive men, is the tendency to confuse results with causes. The following false but

popular ideas seem to result from this confusion between cause and effect:

(21½) That production, when economic, does not create equal purchasing power. That general overproduction can exist. That overproduction causes depressions.

(21½) That demand rather than production creates wealth. That consumers should be urged to spend as much as possible. That higher wages should be paid to increase consuming power. That credit buying should be stimulated. That government subsidies should be used to increase buying.

(26½) That depressions are caused by lack of faith or fear, or can be cured by faith or confidence. That prosperity is caused by confidence. That faith or fear is more a cause than an effect of economic changes.

(34½) That credit makes business rather than business making credit in our present system.

(46½) That depressing the foreign exchange value of a country's money, without increasing the quantity, will of itself raise the price level. That raising the price of gold without increasing the quantity of money will raise the price level.

(56) That rising or falling prices are entirely psychological. "There could be any degree of inflation, and prices would not be affected, if the inflation were obscured from the public eye."

Like the hero of Tennyson's *The Princess*, people are constantly confusing the symbol with the reality. They confuse the measure with the thing measured. They confuse money with wealth. For example many persons believe:

(19) That we can or should export more than we import. That protective tariffs, quotas or embargoes to produce protection, are good. That foreign countries or foreigners can pay their debts to this country or to people in this country without restricting their imports or increasing their exports. That exports should be subsidized or financed to produce a "favorable" balance of trade. That we should not have money "taken out of the country" through remittances of immigrants, tourist expenses, or gold shipments.

(24) That government borrowings may impoverish future generations. That it is possible now to consume future wealth. That taxation to pay interest charges or to repay borrowings is destruction rather than redistribution of wealth.

(26½) That real wealth is something else than goods or services. That money is anything but a medium of exchange. That increasing the stock of money or monetary gold is an increase in wealth.

(28½) That the value of money is to be measured by the price of foreign bills of exchange rather than by its purchasing power. That wages between countries should be compared according to the price of bills of exchange rather than according to the commodity value of money.

Economics teachers must regard as false many published arguments on economic subjects because they express or imply a lack of faith in the principles of economic theory, or even of science in general. This lack of faith is shown by such arguments as:

(15) That international trade should be based on a two-way balance. That reciprocal agreements are better than free trade. That the equation of international trade needs to be planned or forced.

(46½) That it is possible or desirable to work against economic laws in general.

(56) That correct economic theories may conflict with facts.

(61½) That economics cannot derive scientific laws.

(66) That commodity market prices are fixed in the long run by collusion rather than by the operation of the laws of the market.

It is natural that many people should not take the time or effort to look into all the results of an activity, or into more than the immediate results, even though



an examination of all the results, or of the results over a longer period of time, might materially affect their decision. The most common false ideas from this source, found in the magazines and newspapers studied, were:

(24) That monetary depreciation gives a nation more than a fleeting advantage in international trade. That artificially increasing the price of gold or silver would have this effect.

(46 $\frac{1}{2}$ ) That fiat wage raises are at the expense of capitalists or entrepreneurs rather than of other workers and consumers.

(56) That capital may not be the product of saving. That inflation creates capital without forcing saving.

(61 $\frac{1}{2}$ ) That inflation is a good substitute for taxation in paying government obligations.

(66) That competition will not inevitably lead to harmony. That competition should be maintained at all costs.

Some common fallacies may be explained by the kind of superficiality that judges from too limited experience, from too few examples, or from failure to analyze the reasons behind the examples. Fallacies that seem to have been caused by such superficiality are:

(32 $\frac{1}{2}$ ) That fiat inflation is necessarily uncontrollable.

(32 $\frac{1}{2}$ ) That public works or government expenditures are necessarily an unproductive drain on industry. That public works programs cannot help cure depressions because necessarily non-productive.

(46 $\frac{1}{2}$ ) That capitalist economy is "planless."

(46 $\frac{1}{2}$ ) That the changed price of bills of exchange resulting from inflation would restrict international trade like a tariff.

(66) That the business cycle is inevitable.

While the abstraction of the "economic man" and the other simplifications of orthodox economics have a place in the development of economic theory, it should be recognized that rules for business or government can scarcely be adopted without change from such an oversimplified basis. Fallacies resulting from the naïve application of abstract theory to life situations without adequate consideration of the human factor or of the nature of our business ethics are:

(3 $\frac{1}{2}$ ) That we should follow a policy of complete "laissez faire." That control or regulation of economic conditions is unwise. That depressions can be cured only by natural forces.

(12) That minute industrial planning is good or feasible without more detailed information or a better selection of honest and capable officials to administer the "planning" than we now have. That production should be "planned" rather than based on demand of the market.

(46 $\frac{1}{2}$ ) That government ownership and operation of industries would, as the government is now chosen, tend to be more efficient than private ownership.

(66) That economics can, as an applied science, divorce the human equation from its consideration.

(66) That high prices necessarily decrease demand and low prices necessarily increase it.

There is a school of popular economists which believes that our power to produce has outrun our power to consume, and that the cure lies in slowing down or decreasing the power to produce. The writer, perhaps himself guilty of the fallacy of judging too much by his limited personal experience, believes that human desires are still considerably in advance of production and that the cure lies elsewhere than in limiting the production of goods. He is reminded

of all the things he wants but cannot afford at the prevailing price levels, and judges that the wants of other men continue in the same way to be unsatisfied. Philosophically the writer is ready to admit that it would, perhaps, be for the larger development and the greater glory of man to limit his desire for material possessions, to devote a larger leisure to contemplation, and to cultivate his intellectual and spiritual capacities in a world stripped of the achievements of practical modern invention. Yet any such philosophical argument is entirely beside the point here. As an economist and as a practical man in twentieth century America he must call the following ideas in magazines and newspapers false:

(31½) That government regulation of hours of work would be of economic benefit. That shortening working hours is economically beneficial, when increasing resistance from fatigue is not a factor.

(6) That decreasing the supply of a good to raise its price will increase the general economic welfare.

(10½) That high cost producers should receive special aid to stay in business. That man power should replace machines. That there should be no new machines or improvements or no "competition unto death" between new and old capital.

(34½) That it would be socially beneficial for those who don't need work not to work. That labor preference should, from the social point of view, be against them.

Economic quack doctors, like their medical counterpart, try to cure disease by artificially inducing the symptoms associated in their mind with health. Yet the pink cheeks of the consumptive are no true sign of health, and some of the symptoms associated in the public mind with prosperity are really symptoms of a disease that is corrupting prosperity. For example the following theories are fallacious:

(2) That money inflation is good.

(7) That inflation of credit is good.

(10½) That a high or rising price level is ordinarily good, or that a falling price level is worse than a rising.

(56) That all production is economically beneficial, though the good produced is not wanted, is not beneficial, or is even detrimental.

We talk too much about the cause or the basic cause. A cause is an interaction by which one or all of the interacting things or forces are changed. There must be at least two things or forces for an interaction. If this is true, then the following are fallacies:

(9) That gold or other backing is the sole determinant of money value, or that varying this backing has an equal and exact reaction on the price level of goods.

(17½) That gold standard money is a stable measure of value. That the value of money should be stabilized with gold rather than the price level. That a commodity dollar is "rubber."

Finally, any list of fallacies ought to contain one example of mistaking a definition for a cause, somewhat like the early physical scientists who thought they had explained something, when they had found a name for it. In this way some business men think that they have explained better business, when they

have only found that it is the same thing as increased rapidity of circulation or quantity of money (a fallacy whose rank order of frequency is  $30\frac{1}{2}$ ).

To apply this kind of material to the uses of the school room is an essential part of teaching economics. Any accusation to the students that their thinking processes are as described will meet instant and truthful denial. The truth is that they haven't thought at all. They think and know, if boys, about athletics, airplanes, and automobiles, and, if girls, about fashions and society news, but neither boys nor girls of high-school age have done much thinking about economics. Perhaps in spite of anything we can do to stop them, they will subscribe to many fallacies as soon as they are old enough to develop any interest in economic subjects; but they will subscribe on the basis of accepting what is commonly believed or on the basis of pseudo-authorities. In economics pre-tests the better students are often handicapped, because they have read and thought on economic subjects.

In order to make our economic system safer in the hands of the democracy of tomorrow than it has been in the hands of the democracy of today, we must develop techniques for combating these economic fallacies. If it be true that the college is the school for leaders and the high school for citizens as a whole, then it becomes especially true that we need to combat such fallacies in high school. To that end administrators can make sure that they select teachers trained in sound economic thought. They can especially make sure that those teachers who specialize in molding social thought, the social-science teachers, have all had some specialized training in economic theory. Those of us who are teachers can make sure that we have a solid background of economic theory, not necessarily derived from formal accredited courses. We can be sure that some future teacher will not need to spend her time unteaching what we have taught. We can teach the students sound theory, and we can at least try to teach them to apply this theory to particular situations as they come up. This means that current-events teaching must be more than a mere presentation of newspaper and magazine articles. Unless a critical analysis is made of the current-events presentations they are worse than useless, as has been shown by this analysis of fallacies in such material.

In his own experience in teaching economics, the writer used the last day of each unit for prepared student talks on current events, the application of previously studied economic theory to criticism of these talks, and a talk by himself applying the theory of the unit to an analysis of current events. He encouraged questioning of the reasoning in the text and in the texts of other courses, especially history, and questioning of himself, rather than of other instructors. True-false and multiple-choice tests on the unit were at least half tests of reasoning rather than memory, applying the theory of the unit to previously undiscussed problem situations.

A practical approach to the problem can be evolved. A new type of test<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup> These tests were first presented by the writer at a sectional meeting of a district convention of the Iowa State Teachers Association at Waterloo, Iowa, in the fall of 1925.

was developed for teaching these fallacies and proved effective for the better third of the students. These tests were based on the Socratic method. They started with an obvious statement. From that statement other obvious statements were derived until the student found that he had reasoned himself to a perhaps unexpected but correct conclusion. About one-third of the students finish these tests correctly. About one-third fail to take them, since they are voluntary, or fail to finish them or finish them incorrectly. About one-third refuse to take the last step, to the conclusion, perhaps suffering from an emotional block. These controlled reasoning tests not only have a self-teaching value; they constitute a method of teaching subjects in controversy (though not necessarily controversial), which cannot be criticized by the public. The chief difficulty in these tests is to convince the students that some subtle "catch" is not hidden in such simple and obvious questions. They are also not accustomed to a relationship existing between succeeding questions. Such a test attempts to check only intelligence and should not affect that part of the student's grade that measures quality. The writer has always made the taking of these tests voluntary and has given "extra credit points" for doing them successfully. These points are also used by many teachers for written current events and textbook analyses and other projects. The last or review unit of the course, as used by the writer, was an analysis of the most common economic fallacies found in magazines or newspapers, on the basis of the economic theory studied.

The social-science teacher may well teach the students some rules for distinguishing propaganda from reasoning. They should be taught to recognize genuine as distinguished from spurious authority; that Henry Ford is not an authority on economics nor was Thomas Edison on pedagogy. They should be taught to distinguish the source of the argument, who or what organization is back of it. They should learn to discount emotional presentations and articles containing condemnation by the "calling of names" or by ridicule. They should learn to check the personal and occupational background of the writer and the "slant" of the publication. The teacher who is interested in developing a more successful democracy than we now have has undoubtedly already developed many methods of combating fallacious social thought and will continue to develop many more methods than can be mentioned here. It is only as an illustration of his own methods that the following sample test is offered:

#### ECONOMICS REASONING TEST

*Directions:* The purpose of this test is not to find out how much you know about economics, but rather to help you figure out the correct solution to a problem that puzzles many people. The grade on this test will not count on your test average. To make it worth while for you to do your best on it you will be given extra credit points according to how well you do.

The answers to most of the questions are so easy that you may think there is a catch to them. There is no catch. This test is supposed to be easy so that everyone will be sure to get the answers right.

Put an X in the blank after the answer that you think is right for the question.

*Introduction:* Many people get such low wages that they or their families cannot live de-

cently. Some people think the cure is for the government to force employers to pay a decent living wage to everyone. Let us figure whether that cure would do more good than harm.

1. Would there or would there not be any purpose in passing such a law if there were no people working for less than the lowest wage allowed in the law?

A. Would be useful anyway. \_\_\_\_\_

B. Would not be. \_\_\_\_\_

2. Would or would not most people work for less than a decent living wage if they could get more pay from some other employer?

A. Would work for less though they could get more. \_\_\_\_\_

B. Would not work for less if they could get more. \_\_\_\_\_

3. If people will work for less than a decent living wage, is or is not that wage the correct one to equalize the supply and demand for workers?

A. Is a supply and demand wage. \_\_\_\_\_

B. Is not a supply and demand wage. \_\_\_\_\_

4. If a law setting wages higher was passed would the supply of workers offering to work for the higher wage be greater or less than the supply that offered to work for the lower wage?

A. Greater supply of workers at the higher wage. \_\_\_\_\_

B. Less supply of workers at the higher wage. \_\_\_\_\_

5. If a law setting wages higher was passed would the demand for workers at the higher wage be greater or less than the demand for workers at the lower wage?

A. Greater demand at the higher wage. \_\_\_\_\_

B. Less demand at the higher wage. \_\_\_\_\_

6. If the supply of workers became greater and the demand for workers became less would we have more or less unemployment?

A. More unemployment. \_\_\_\_\_

B. Less unemployment. \_\_\_\_\_

7. Which is worse: wages less than a decent living, or no wages at all?

A. Wages less than a decent living. \_\_\_\_\_

B. No wages at all. \_\_\_\_\_

8. Would setting wages higher make the poor man better off or worse off if it increased unemployment?

A. Better off. \_\_\_\_\_

B. Worse off. \_\_\_\_\_

9. Would a law setting wages higher make more or less unemployment?

A. More unemployment. \_\_\_\_\_

B. Less unemployment. \_\_\_\_\_

10. Should or should not the government pass a law setting wages higher?

A. Should pass. \_\_\_\_\_

B. Should not pass. \_\_\_\_\_



# The Use of Historical Sources

G. G. ANDREWS

*State University of Iowa*

There can be little doubt that original sources are being used to a much greater extent than formerly for the teaching of history in high-school and junior-college courses. This movement is perhaps of more significance than is realized at first thought. It indicates the tendency to place increasing stress upon educational processes rather than upon findings, upon ways and means of acquiring knowledge and the stimulation of independent thinking rather than upon efforts to learn and remember a mass of previously ascertained facts. The necessity for the study of original sources by professional historians and teachers has long been recognized. In fact it is no secret that many even of this class do not yet study them enough. To ask college freshmen and high-school students, however, to grapple with source material has only recently come to be considered reasonable, and there may be teachers who still doubt its value for students.

In order to state the case more effectively, it is necessary to clear away possible misunderstandings. First, it must be asserted emphatically that the purpose of the study of sources is not to transform all students into research specialists; and no sane teacher expects to do so. It is recognized that the great majority of those enrolled in the course will never become research scholars. The justification for the study of source materials is that it serves to stimulate intellectual activity and interest. It aids in starting that questioning process which, according to James Harvey Robinson, is the beginning of wisdom. Another point involves the relation of this material to the textbook. Does the introduction of source material and problems make a textbook unnecessary, or undesirable? By no means—sources are not intended to supplant, but to supplement, the textbook. Finally, it is not expected that the whole course or even the larger part of it should be devoted to source exercises. This is a special type of work, for which only a limited amount of time can be spared. Let us not harm a good cause by exorbitant demands or by the exaggeration of its possibilities.

One of the most important uses of sources is to impress upon the student the fact that history is based upon evidence. History is not the product of an uncontrolled imagination, of the idle fancy of some dreamer, invented for his own or others' amusement. The foundation of all history is based on evidence, and that evidence is found only in the sources. It is true that sources may be of different kinds, but they are indispensable. No sources, no history! Textbooks are very useful, and we cannot get along without them, but it is unfortunate for even a beginner to get the notion that the textbook used in class is the original or the only source of information on the subject. Nothing so thoroughly dispels this impression as direct contact with the sources. In addition, some idea is gained of how knowledge of the past is preserved and of the reliability of the evidence upon which historical conclusions rest. It is the function of history to deal with the past. A great part of this past is literally far removed from us, but to many

students it seems as remote as if it had occurred on another planet. The sense of a living past, from which the present has developed, is thus completely lost. It is one of the great advantages of reading sources that they seem to bring the past nearer and to give to bygone events a sense of reality as nothing else does. For example, freedom of speech is supposedly such a commonplace right today that it is difficult for students to understand what a long, hard struggle was necessary to obtain it. The British were striving for it in the English Parliament before the days of the Spanish Armada. An extract from a speech of Peter Wentworth in 1576 gives real insight into the situation:

"There is nothing so necessary," he says, "for the preservation of the prince and state as free speech, and without it, it is a scorn and a mockery to call this a Parliament House. . . . Two things do great harm in this place. . . . The one is a rumour which runneth about the House and this it is, take heed what you do, the Queen's Majesty liketh not such a matter; whosoever prefereth it, she will be offended with him. . . . The other: sometimes a message is brought into the House either of commanding or inhibiting, very injurious to the freedom of speech and consultation. I would to God, Mr. Speakers, that these two were buried in hell. . . ."

It is almost needless to add that Wentworth was imprisoned for his impertinence, and later on Queen Elizabeth sent a message to Parliament by the Lord Keeper in which she explained in no uncertain terms just what their privileges were. Again I quote: "Privilege of speech is granted; but you must know what privilege you have, not to speak everyone what he listeth, or what cometh in his brain to utter, but your privilege is to say yea or no." It is a far cry from this to our modern conception of free speech, and even children quickly see it; and they get an idea from the relation between the two, which is of vital importance.

The charge is often made that history is dull and uninteresting—a matter largely of unpronounceable names and never-to-be-forgotten dates. Perhaps we are all more or less guilty of dragging these skeletons around; but, for the fair name of our profession as well as the good of our students, it is highly expedient that some elements of life be imparted to history. The dead, we are told, never speak; thus, when the past speaks to us through sources, it is no longer dead. Sources, in a very real sense, make history interesting and alive. They grip the attention and give insight into the conditions of the time that is impossible to obtain in any other way. In the early days of the French Revolution, when the Assembly was drafting the constitution, the question of granting the king a veto over legislation became a vital issue and the talk of the country. The word "veto" was new, especially to the lower classes in France, and many secondary accounts say that rather absurd ideas were current as to what it really implied. Yet it is doubtful if this mere statement will leave so vivid an impression upon the student as the following extract taken from a contemporary French newspaper:

Two peasants were talking about the veto. "Do you know what a veto is?" said one. "No." . . . "Well, I will tell you. You have your bowl filled with soup, and the king says to you, 'Upset your soup,' and you have to spill it. That is a veto."

The rabble of Paris, however, were soon sufficiently instructed to decide that,

whatever the veto might be, they didn't want it; and the Assembly received a number of anonymous letters threatening the members who would dare to vote for it. One of these was written to the president of the Assembly, and read as follows:

The patriotic assembly of the Palais Royal has the honor to inform you that if the aristocratic party, composed of part of the clergy, part of the nobility, and 120 ignorant or corrupt members of the commons, continues to stir up discord and still wishes the absolute veto, 15,000 men are ready to fire their castles and houses, and yours in particular, Sir.

When all England was aflame with the agitation that resulted in the Reform Bill of 1832, the conservative landlords were horrified at the idea of taking representatives away from the old "rotten" and "pocket" boroughs with their few or no inhabitants and giving them to the growing industrial cities of the north. They fought heroically against any change, and the reformers found it hard going. It was in Parliament that the matter was finally settled, and Macaulay says of one of the votes that "the ayes and noes were like two volleys of cannon from opposite sides of a field of battle." Such militant antagonism shows how vital the question of reform really was. As a sample of the spirit of the time, I will quote an extract from a famous speech in favor of the bill made by Macaulay in the House of Commons:

It is said that the [present] system works well. I deny it. I deny that a system works well, which the people regard with aversion. We may say here, that it is a good system and a perfect system. But if any man were to say so to any 658 respectable farmers or shopkeepers, chosen by lot in any part of England, he would be hooted down, and laughed to scorn. . . . It is by means of rotten boroughs, they tell us, that the ablest men have been introduced into Parliament. It is true that many distinguished persons have represented places of this description. But, Sir, we must judge of a form of government by its general tendency, not by happy accidents. . . . If there were a law that the hundred tallest men in England should be members of Parliament, there would probably be some able men among those who would come into the House by virtue of this law. We read in ancient history, that a very able king was elected by the neighing of his horse. But we shall scarcely, I think, adopt this mode of election. . . . I do not say, that precisely the same able men who would find their way into the present House of Commons, will find their way into the reformed House—but that is not the question. No particular man is necessary to the State. We may depend upon it, that if we provide the country with free institutions, these institutions will provide it with great men.

#### THE ADVANTAGES OF USING SOURCE MATERIALS

Sources may be used in such a variety of ways that it is possible to adapt them to the needs of almost any class of students from the grades to the graduate school. In the less advanced courses they may serve simply as collateral reading. No more technical training is necessary for enabling the student to read sources than for him to read the secondary material that is ordinarily assigned. Besides being interesting and giving an insight into the life of the times, the sources have other possibilities. As they are read the student may become interested in the author and make inquiries regarding his life, his opportunity for learning about the events of which he wrote, his time of writing, and whether he might have any reason for not wanting to tell the truth. Such matters determine the value of evidence,

and they may all come up quite incidentally in connection with source readings.

In order to give point and direction to the work, it is well to place in the student's hands questions, for which answers are to be found in the sources. This plan by no means prevents him from acquiring other information than that bearing directly upon the questions. The more careful reading caused by searching for proper answers tends to impress upon the student's mind many other things and, best of all, helps him to form the habit of concentrating upon what he reads. These questions should be adapted to the student's grade, although there are certain advantages to be gained by including in these lists a few questions that will tax the ability even of the best students. For more advanced classes there are available carefully planned exercises to be worked out by drawing upon source materials. As examples of such exercises the following might be suggested. After a study has been made of the source extracts dealing with the work on the Constitution during the early months of the French Revolution, the student might be asked to write an account of the organization and procedure of the National Assembly, incorporating all the evidence to be found in the sources on that subject. Or he might be asked to write a statement and criticism of the political views of some well-known leader, such as Mirabeau, basing his work upon reports, speeches, and the comments of contemporaries found in the different source extracts. Many other possibilities will suggest themselves to individual instructors.

Another highly important use to which sources may be put is that of training in the critical handling of historical evidence. Not all the material the historian draws upon in reconstructing the past is of equal value, and it is essential to know how he attempts to distinguish that of greater worth and reliability from the less valuable, or the worthless. This type of work can be done effectively only in connection with source problems. Where there is a conflict of evidence between two sources, how are we to decide which one is true? Let us consider a case in point. Shortly after the passage of the English Reform Bill of 1832, Thomas Creevey, a charming but gossipy old Whig, wrote a letter to his step-daughter in which he made the following assertion:

When Lord Grey determined upon beginning his administration by a reform in Parliament, he named Lord Durham, Lord John Russell, Lord Duncannon, and Sir James Graham as the persons to prepare a bill for that purpose; and they *did* prepare *the* bill, of which Lord Grey knew not one syllable till it was presented to him all ready, cut and dry.

According to Mr. Creevey, then, Lord Grey didn't know a great deal about the preparation of the bill he was to sponsor. There was one man, a Mr. Roebeck, who had his doubts about this, or at least was curious enough to write to Sir James Graham to find out just how the bill was drawn up. I quote the following from the reply of Sir James Graham:

No bill was drawn up until the consent of the King and of the Cabinet had been obtained to the plan of the committee, with modifications. . . . The measure therefore must be regarded as the fruit of Lord Grey's instructions to the committee; as the compound of the deliberations and of the suggestions of the members composing that committee, and as the ultimate compromise of the various opinions in the Cabinet, with whom the final decisions rested.

High-school students quickly note the disagreement between these two accounts and they can explain very satisfactorily why they prefer the testimony of Sir James Graham to that of Mr. Creevey. Early critical training seems quite in harmony with the opinion of Burr that "even in the high school the student must learn what research is, and must have at least such tempting foretastes as shall stir in him a life-long appetite, and leave him no longer the bond-slave of authority."

One of the most challenging statements which the writer has heard in recent years was made by Andrew C. McLaughlin of the University of Chicago. In speaking of the achievements of modern times he asserted: "The greatest development in modern civilization is the influence of evidence in human affairs." In explanation he went on to show the superiority of this development over the discoveries of medical science, the advance of knowledge, the radio, the airplane, and other contributions of the age. To our materialistic minds this statement may at first appear doubtful, but reflection deepens the conviction of its authenticity. What are some of the notable results for which the "influence of evidence in human affairs" is responsible? Without attempting any exhaustive list, a few might be mentioned: the abolition of trials by ordeal or battle, reducing if not completely destroying religious persecution, the end of the witchcraft craze and witch burnings, rending the veil of medieval superstition, clearing the mind of scientific or rather unscientific misconceptions and prejudices, undermining the supremacy of nobles and autocrats and showing the worth of the common man, thus paving the way for democracy. In short, the influence of evidence has produced a new attitude of mind, which is perhaps best shown by contrast with the attitude of such a fine type of medieval scholar as St. Anselm, whose words follow:

I make no attempt, Lord, to penetrate to thy depths, for my intellect has not such reach; but I desire to understand some measure of thy truth, which my heart believes and loves. I do not seek to know in order that I may believe; but I believe in order that I may know. For this I hold to be true, that unless I shall have believed I shall not be able to understand.

There may be some teachers who still cling to this doctrine, but to Anselm's dictum "I believe in order that I may know" the modern scholar would reply, "I seek to know in order that I may believe." This new mental attitude, which bases belief upon evidence, has in sober fact created a new heaven and a new earth. It is the real business of the historian to clarify this gigantic transformation. Training in the handling of evidence is thus of the utmost importance to the student of history. It enables him to sift the true from the false not only in the past but in the present, and this sifting process shows in vital action the influence that has played the leading part in producing our modern world.

The culminating and most exacting of all work with original sources is known among historians as synthesis, that is, the organization of the material, after it has been collected and criticized, and the composition of the narrative. Synthesis is especially difficult because it requires not only discrimination and



organizing ability but also skill in writing. The range for individual initiative here is unlimited. For acceptable writing, without attempting to outline the rules of composition and style, it may suffice to say that the two most fundamental requirements are clarity and simplicity. Practical exercises in the writing of historical narratives are possible in connection with any source problem. They may be long or short, as desired, and they may range all the way from simple narratives to the conventional thesis with footnote references and critical bibliography. On account of the difficulties involved, narrative writing can best be done by the more advanced and better trained students, but even lower classmen will gain materially from efforts in this direction.

In conclusion, the writer wishes to summarize what he considers the advantages to be derived from the study of original sources. It leads the student to the mine from which all his information comes, and acquaints him with the contemporary atmosphere and point of view surrounding the period or subject under investigation. It initiates him into the methods and processes by which the historian selects his material and formulates his conclusions. It develops his critical faculties, and enables him to recognize and appreciate good work, when he encounters it. Especially in studies devoted to a single topic does it give him some training in the handling of conflicting, qualifying, and corroborative evidence. On the whole, it is the most thought-provoking kind of historical study.

#### USEFUL SOURCE COLLECTIONS

*Landmarks in History*, edited by Bernadotte E. Schmitt and published by F. S. Crofts & Co., New York, provide exercises in the use of source materials. The series includes Witt Bowden, *The Industrial Revolution* (1928. 65¢); George G. Andrews, *The Constitution in the Early French Revolution* (1927. 60¢); George G. Andrews, *Parliamentary Reform in England, 1830-1832* (1927. 60¢); and F. Lee Benne, *The Irish Question, 1912-1914* (1928. 65¢).

*Harper's Parallel Source Problem Series* includes: Frederic Duncalf and A. C. Krey, *Parallel Source Problems in Medieval History* (1912. \$1.50); Fred M. Fling, *Parallel Source Problems in the French Revolution* (1913. \$1.50); Albert B. White and W. Notestein, *Parallel Source Problems in English History* (1915. \$1.50); and Andrew C. McLaughlin, W. E. Dodd, M. W. Jerne-gan, and A. P. Scott, *Parallel Source Problems in American History* (1918. \$1.50).

In addition to the familiar J. H. Robinson, *Readings in European History* (Ginn & Co., 1904-06, 2 vols.) and J. H. Robinson and C. A. Beard, *Readings in Modern European History* (Ginn & Co., 1908-09, 2 vols.), the following more recent publications may be noted: H. Webster, *Historical Selections* (1929) for the history of civilization; A. Hyma, J. B. Scott and A. H. Noyes, *Readings in Medieval History* (1933. \$3.50). J. B. Scott and A. Baltzly, *Readings in European History Since 1815* (F. S. Crofts & Co., New York, 1930. \$3.50); and H. S. Commager, *Documents of American History* (F. S. Crofts & Co., New York, 1934. \$4.00). The list could be greatly extended.

Teachers may be interested in Henry Johnson's chapter, "School History and the Historical Method," in *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools* and in his bibliography for that chapter.

# Discussion Groups for High-School Graduates

HERBERT S. EIGES

*David Mackenzie High School, Detroit, Michigan*

In September, 1932, a small number of graduates formulated an educational project that assumed the name of the Alumni Discussion Group, a division of the Alumni Association of the David Mackenzie High School of Detroit, Michigan. One of the cardinal principles of education, "worthy use of leisure time," underlies the work of this organization, which embodies a two-fold program, (1) to provide a means for stimulating educational interest that might otherwise be lost upon graduation (2) to offer the graduates an opportunity to continue the friendships and associations formed in high school.

For the past five years, high-school graduates throughout the country have had to face a difficult problem, which developed as a result of the breakdown of our industrial organization. The decline in production of commodities was followed sharply by a similar decline in consumption. Yet our schools continued to produce prospective workers who were in search of employment but found that there was no demand for their services. A large number of those who had received their diplomas hoped to enter universities, but economic conditions made that impossible. Many quickly became discouraged and disheartened. The question arose as to what provision society was going to make for these boys and girls, who could neither find jobs nor fulfill their hopes of attending college. Some of those engaged in educational activity have been cognizant of this problem, but little has been done to remedy the situation.

## HOW ONE SCHOOL TRIED TO SOLVE ITS POSTGRADUATE PROBLEM

An opportunity to develop a constructive program of education presented itself to Mackenzie graduates. As a result, a plan of weekly discussion meetings was proposed and approved. The necessity of being a self-directed group was emphasized. In line with this principle it was the practice for members to suggest topics for discussion. The graduates also gave advice on types of meetings to be held and persons to be invited to speak to the group. It was determined that the material presented to the group would be on a college level. Many of the speakers at these meetings are members of the faculty of Wayne University, a municipal institution. Full coöperation was given to the group by the university in suggesting topics and speakers for the lectures. Staff members gave talks on psychology, history, economics, and science. Some of these lectures were given with the aid of demonstration material. These programs aroused a good deal of interest and proved effective in developing thought and understanding of the subject matter presented.

In accordance with its policy of operating on a college basis, it was intended that the group should meet once each week from seven to nine. However, it was found impossible to start the meetings so early. It has since become the

custom to begin at eight o'clock and to adjourn at nine-thirty. Frequently, when the topic is particularly interesting and evokes a great many questions during the question period, the time for adjournment is extended by fifteen minutes to half an hour.

Members of the high-school faculty who have material of interest to this group have given four talks covering evolution, sociology, astronomy, and economics. These discussions proved stimulating. One young man, who established a very good scholastic record in high school and was awarded a scholarship to Wayne University, wrote, "I have become very much interested in astronomy in the past year. This interest was stimulated by a talk on astronomy given at the discussion group in 1933." As a result of this lecture on astronomy, arrangements were made with the observatory of the University of Michigan for a group to go to Ann Arbor to inspect the equipment and to look through the telescopes used for astronomical study. In accordance with the policy of allowing full student participation, approval was obtained and an opportunity provided for one of the group to present a demonstration of dictaphone machines. This young man had been fortunate enough to obtain a position that stimulated his interest in these machines. He did very well with this subject on the evening assigned for this talk.

At a recent meeting devoted to a discussion of the housing problem, a friend who accompanied the speaker expressed great surprise upon learning that there was absolutely no compulsion for attendance at these meetings. She said that, when she was teaching, it was almost impossible to get a group of this kind together for educational purposes. She was told that there were no dues, nor was college credit given. No attendance is taken except to record the total number present. The success of the project is entirely dependent upon those who attend its meetings each week. One member who has worked in the office of an automobile body plant, but who is now unemployed, included the following statement in her letter on the work and value of the group:

When speaking of the group to people who are in no way connected with it, they usually say: "That's impossible. You can't tell me you belong to an organization of young people who meet weekly for the sole purpose of study and discussion."

The best evidence this girl has that the organization does exist is the fact that she attends the meetings regularly, usually asks questions, and follows up the programs by reading on the different subjects that have been discussed.

The necessity for developing this work on a wider scale seems evident. Official figures show the very small percentage of graduates of this particular high school certified to any institution of higher learning; only 12 per cent of the total number of graduates, during the years 1932, 1933, and 1934, went on to college or university. Yet many of the high-school graduates who do not go to college can be stimulated to further intellectual interests; and it seems important to bridge the gap from high school to life and to ease the course of these young people by expanding this kind of educational program.

## THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MEMBERS

Character development has played a particularly important rôle in the work of this discussion group. During the very severe winter of 1933-1934, the discussion one evening was planned to cover the various phases of the Tugwell bill then under consideration in Congress. Six members had volunteered to study the subject and to present their findings. On that evening the temperature had dropped to fifteen degrees below zero. When the faculty sponsor started for the school building, he thought it probable that no members would be present. However, much to his amazement, about fifteen appeared. Among them were five of the six scheduled to give their reports. Adverse weather conditions easily might have been used as an excuse for remaining at home, but it seems probable that an appreciation of regularity, punctuality, and responsibility had been developed in these young people.

On several occasions speakers have expressed themselves in a commendatory manner on the kind of questions asked. One of these was the talk given by the secretary of the city plan commission, who spoke on the housing and slum clearance project being considered for the city of Detroit. When the meeting was adjourned the speaker said that he had been asked more intelligent questions than he had by many adult audiences. This may be taken as indicative of the power of thought and analysis of which these young people are capable.

The statements written by these young men and women are an interesting evaluation of the enterprise. One young woman wrote that "everything we have undertaken to discuss and study . . . concerns one thing: our social life . . . how better to live in mutual coöperation with human beings." Another member, interested enough to continue her regular attendance even though she had obtained employment in a department store, thought that the lectures and discussions had increased her ability to understand and compare opposing points of view about questions of current interest and had stimulated her to read various books of economics problems. She had come to believe that there were probably "two sides to every question." Another member, who was able to attend the university, continued to find time for this discussion group for the sake of its "mental stimulation; a chance to match my wits with those of other people" and of "learning something in . . . entirely a different way." Several of the statements indicated that the weekly meetings tended to stimulate members to read in new and varied fields, since many speakers suggest books in their particular field of interest. One member, who is now working during the daytime and going to night school at Wayne University, told how she "found that the lectures were an invaluable source of information . . . and aroused a determination to study the subject further." It was a lecture on Fascism that stimulated her to obtain a book on *Europe's New Deal* and to set herself to "learn of the new forms of government in European countries."

## A WIDENING PROGRAM

Generally, each evening is devoted to an informal talk followed by a question period. The following programs were planned:

The Soviet Union, 1934, illustrated with motion pictures taken by the speaker.

Labor Problems in the Automobile Industry, presented by a representative of the American Federation of Labor.

A practice debate of the question of Federal Aid to Public Education, presented by two high-school teams.

Nazi Germany in 1934, lecture by a minister who had made a European tour during the summer of 1934.

Slum Clearance, talk by the secretary of the Detroit housing commission.

Historical China, given by a history professor.

The Church in the Present Economic Crisis, presented by a community minister.

The reader may wonder what part the sponsor takes in the conduct of the meetings. It is the policy now well established for the sponsor to select a different member each week to introduce the speaker and, often, to make whatever announcements are necessary. By following this procedure, the sponsor remains in the background and thus encourages the members to carry on as much of the activity as possible. A few figures on the question of attendance at the meetings, gathered from the records of the secretary, have been prepared. They cover the period from September, 1933, to December, 1934, and include a total of forty-one meetings. The largest number attending was ninety-six, including approximately fifteen adults, the smallest number, fifteen, making an average of forty-three.

Another phase of educational study has been developed, increasing interest in reading on the part of youth. To answer the ever-present question of what to read, a young and enthusiastic faculty member of the English department volunteered to form and direct a reading group. This group has had several bi-weekly meetings. It has devoted some time to such authors as Rousseau and Tolstoi. The response has been very encouraging, because it is what the members desired, someone to guide them in their reading, to suggest authors and books, to review the writings of such authors, and to provide opportunity for discussion.

Beyond the benefits accruing to the membership, the organization has become the center of development of various projects for the alumni association. Alumni activities have been stimulated as a result of the ideas and suggestions arising at the weekly meetings of this educational group. The project of paramount interest at present is the establishment of a scholarship fund. It is the hope of the alumni board that each semester one member of the graduating class may be given a year's tuition from the funds of the alumni association.



# A Student Survey of Local Occupations

J. FRED MURPHY

*High School, Logansport, Indiana*

Education for the future demands that our public schools lay greater emphasis upon the personal assistance and direction given each pupil, in reference to (1) his life's career, (2) his training in books, (3) his citizenship activities, and (4) his individual adjustment to society. An intelligent and effective service of this kind depends partly on the amount of information available to teachers and administrators. In recognition of this fact, during November and December of 1934, three civics classes in the senior high school undertook an occupational survey of the city of Logansport, Indiana, which had a population of 18,508 according to the latest federal census.

The ninety-six students in the three civics classes represented a cross-section of the city population. Only three actually lived in rural districts. Thirty-five came from business homes, four from professional parents, thirty-one from the homes of tradesmen and laborers, six from farmers, and twenty from the homes of the unemployed. This may account for the fact that only a few were in the college preparatory course, the rest scattering through the industrial arts, commercial, home economics, and general courses. There were 256 members of the senior class. Of those we found that 86 per cent were members of fourteen different churches, that 24 per cent were planning to attend institutions of higher learning, that 25 per cent had no occupational choices for the future, that many more girls than boys had tentatively decided upon a life's career, and that retail selling was the most popular occupational choice for both boys and girls.

The component parts of the civics class's survey were (1) the purposes or aims, (2) the method employed in obtaining the data, (3) the limitations of the study, (4) the facts discovered, and (5) the uses made of the data obtained.

(1) *Purposes or Aims.* The occupational survey attempted to learn the number of males and females employed part-time and full-time in different vocations, to find the different classes of occupations in which the people of our own city were employed, to determine with some degree of accuracy the amount of annual labor turnover in each type of vocation during a period of economic stress and strain, to obtain employment figures that were more recent than those of the decennial census, to provide students in the high school with definite occupational information concerning their own community, to assist, by adequate advice, each student in the selection of a curriculum suited to his possible opportunities for employment, to provide information of value to school officials in curriculum revision, and to discover fields of probable employment in order to assist students in obtaining appointments.

(2) *Method of Procedure.* Each student in the civics classes was assigned at least one place of business in our city. Some students, depending upon personal interest in the project, were asked to visit several establishments. The students were provided with mimeographed forms indicating the information to be

acquired, namely, the name and location of the business, its nature, the types of occupations in the business, the number of males and females employed part-time and full-time in each of the classes of vocations, and the probable number of new appointments based upon the experience of the past five years. Before setting out to obtain the definite data, one class period of forty minutes was devoted to an informal discussion of the mimeographed forms used. Another class period was given over to a discussion of the features of a personal interview, including personal appearance, approach, intelligent understanding of the project, attitude, courtesy, and a proper closing for the interview. At least one "mock interview" was held in each class.

(3) *Limitations of the Survey.* Students were not sent to business concerns that might affect their reputation for good character or bring public criticism on the school, for example, beer taverns were not visited. Furthermore, owing to obvious physical difficulties, no attempt was made to have ninety-six pupils make a house-to-house canvass in order to obtain complete occupational data.

(4) *Facts Obtained.* Occupational information was obtained concerning 318 general businesses, fourteen factories, 100 places of business established by professional men and women, and seven taxing units of government. The final compilation showed that:

a. There were 152 different types of vocations in the community. Those types were placed under classifications of agriculture, manufacturing, mechanical industries and trades, transportation and communication, trade, public service, professional service, domestic and personal service, and clerical occupations.

b. More women than men were employed in the factories, for example: fifty-one women were employed as assemblers, while only four men were employed in the same occupation; fifty-one women operated general types of machinery, while only nine men were employed in the same capacity; 438 women worked as sewing-machine operators, while no men were similarly employed.

c. Building trades provided little opportunity for regular employment. There were eight brick and stone masons employed part-time and one full-time, ten building contractors, thirteen carpenters employed part-time and three full-time, three electricians employed part-time and thirty-seven, including linemen, full-time, thirty painters and paper-hangers employed part-time, two plasterers employed part-time, seven plumbers employed part-time and six full-time, and there were thirteen tinsmiths and coppersmiths employed full-time.

d. More than a hundred men held public-service positions, among whom were thirty-nine firemen, thirty-seven city, county, and township officials, twenty-one policemen, and twenty-eight teachers.

e. Railway transportation agencies furnished fewer opportunities for employment than formerly. Approximately 2800 men were employed in the early twenties in railroad transportation. In December, 1934, 812 men were employed full-time in this capacity and 135 part-time. Those employed full-time included 280 brakemen and conductors, 200 locomotive engineers and firemen, and 110 switchmen, flagmen, and yardmen.

f. Logansport has gradually gone through a period of transition from a railway center to an unspecialized rural and urban community dependent upon no single industry. This fact was evident, when it was discovered that of those workers employed full-time thirteen were in agricultural pursuits, 1179 in manufacturing, mechanical industries and trades, 339 in road and street transportation, 812 in railroad transportation, ninety-one in express, postal, radio, telegraph, and telephone service, 776 in trade, 105 in public service not otherwise classified, 475 in professions, 569 in domestic and personal service, and 396 in clerical occupations.

(5) *Uses of Data.* With the assistance of students in the commercial department a detailed mimeographed report of the survey was prepared. All of the topics mentioned above were discussed more fully than in this paper. In addition, the original report contained occupational data in tabular form with a detailed interpretation, suggestions for personal analysis concerning vocational aptitudes, suggestions for occupational analysis, and references to books and other material dealing with vocations.

The mimeographed reports were made available to students and adults through the libraries. A copy was also available to each teacher and administrative officer. Recognizing the mobility of students during the few years after graduation, the findings were used as the basis for different group-guidance meetings in the study of occupations, for they represented the major kinds of occupations to be found in any community, they served as a means of bringing students to the realization of a life's situation in the occupational world, and, by discovering the most probable fields of employment temporary or permanent, they aided the school in establishing, for the first time, a placement service for students after graduation. Any information of this type is necessary to help students make proper adjustments in the business after graduation, regardless of whether they remain in the community one year, five years, or longer.

## The Social Sciences at the Harvard Tercentenary Conference

DANIEL C. KNOWLTON  
*New York University*

On September 18 Harvard University brought to a close the celebration of her three hundred years of existence. The celebration of the anniversary of the founding of our oldest university naturally attracted an interest outside academic circles, which is not usually vouchsafed such occasions. Perhaps no single feature of the planned observance of her tercentenary was more significant than the gathering of 2700 American and Canadian scholars, which marked the two weeks from August 31 to September 12. Conferences of groups of scholars have been fairly common in recent years. Such conferences as that at Williamstown, Mass., launched by Harry Garfield, then president of Williams College, and that at Charlottesville under the auspices of the University of Virginia, have brought together scholars and men of affairs for the discussion of current domestic and international problems. There has been no attempt heretofore by the sponsors of these gatherings to marshal the learning of both the new and the old world, for the consideration of such fundamental problems as those discussed at the Harvard Tercentenary Conference. Rarely has an American college or university taken advantage of such a celebration to indicate the relation and the obligation of such an institution to the field of scholarship, and its responsibility to the world.

Seventy-two eminent scholars from fifteen different countries were invited to address the five symposia into which the conference was divided. About half this number represented the biological and physical sciences. Great as was the interest attaching to the pronouncements of such men as Compton, Eddington, Landsteiner, Shiga, Cartan, and Millikan, their papers were somewhat restricted in nature, being concerned largely with the subject matter of their own recent research.

On the other hand, in the three symposia devoted to the subject matter of the social sciences, topics were selected that had a direct bearing upon those problems of the day which are the concern not only of statesmen the world over but of the peoples they represent. The speakers and their themes were selected for the light they might throw upon these problems, either by providing a more thorough-going analysis or by suggesting a possible mode of attack. The three topics selected were The Factors Determining Human Behaviour, Authority and the Individual, and Independence, Convergence, and Borrowing in Institutions, Thought, and Art. These were presented in the order indicated and carefully planned as a progressive attack upon the complicated social milieu of our present world.

Two objectives were sought in the organization of these symposia, first, a unification of the knowledges represented by such separate social sciences as

psychology, history, economics, and sociology, second, a better revelation of the procedures by which the leaders in these separate disciplines were attempting to resolve the problems associated with man's life in society. Membership in these symposia was limited to representatives from the faculties of universities, colleges, and research institutions, for the purpose of bringing together a body of listeners who might reconsider their own research and thought in the light of these discussions and be stimulated to work for a more satisfactory integration of knowledge. The conference, so far as it involved the social sciences, gave further evidence of that groping after synthesis and practical application which has been characteristic of the first three decades of the present century.

A whole day was devoted to each of these topics, including a morning, afternoon, and evening session. Opportunity for discussion was provided by a series of teas and by personal contacts in the dormitories and in the university dining hall. Such "factors determining human behaviour" as the nervous system, hormones, and the "psyche," with such manifestations of behaviour as, for instance, man's organization of his thinking into a system of logic, and such behaviour results as the evolution of British political practice, were all presented by representatives of many nationalities, including an Englishman, a Canadian, two French scholars, a Swiss, a Czech, and the president emeritus of Harvard University. These represented viewpoints of the physiologist, the biochemist, the psychologist, the logician, the political scientist, and the historian and culminated in an analysis of culture patterns, as related to behaviour, by a distinguished Polish anthropologist now associated with the University of London.

The scholars who presented the papers in these symposia, although not as well known to the general public as an Einstein or an Eddington, were representative of the leadership in these fields. These included—to name but a few—Wesley C. Mitchell, Douglas Berry Copland, and William E. Rappard in economics, A. Lawrence Lowell and Edward S. Corwin in political science, John Harold Clapham, Michael I. Rostovtzeff, Charles M. Andrews, Frank M. Powicke, Henry Osborn Taylor, and Etienne Gilson in history, Bernard Malinowski in anthropology, Vere G. Childe in archaeology, Leopold Wenger in law, Joseph Bedier and Howard M. Jones in literature, and Hu Shih, John Dewey, and Masaharu Anesaki in philosophy and religion. Although each of these was identified with some *one* of the social sciences, with few exceptions their papers illustrated in significant fashion an indebtedness to the other related fields and a cross fertilization of ideas drawn from the different disciplines.

The papers often seemed narrowly restricted in their range and somewhat remote from the knowledge and interests of the listener, as illustrated by such a subject as "The abbé Prévost, a Romanticist of 1730," given in French, in the session on The Place and Functions of Authority, or "The Oldest Hymn in Latin Literature," presented in German, in the symposium on Independence, Convergence, and Borrowing in Institutions, Thought, and Art. These, however, served as excellent illustrations of the results attainable by the use of those special methods peculiar to the philologist or student of belles-lettres in studying an in-



dividual in his relation to the intellectual, religious, or social current of his time. These papers, as well as those dealing with better known aspects of man's life and activity, revealed clearly the importance attaching to methodology in a real mastery, not only of the content of the social sciences, but of the possible implications of them.

The relation of such addresses to the three major themes became clear as one listened to the particular group of papers of which they formed a part. The attempt to isolate and appraise the factors influencing human behaviour, which constituted the theme of the first symposium, led naturally to the consideration of the relation between the individual and authority. The conflict between authority and the individual in the realm of business and industrial enterprise was taken up first, in such phases as the relation between the entrepreneur and the state, the rôle of state planning and social control, and the foundations of present-day economic nationalism. This was followed by a consideration of the conservative and liberal factors present in society and their influence, and the nature and tempo of change in the economic, social, and political realm. Such a series of papers was naturally followed by an attempt to indicate the place and functions of authority, present and past, raising, as the final query, the possibility of a philosophy, or pattern of change. Attention was directed to the rôle of classicism and romanticism, the struggle between ancient forms and the spirit of revolt.

In similar fashion, in the closing symposium the various speakers sought, in the relations between the Near East and Europe—more particularly in the pre-literary and classical period—in the middle ages, and in the relations between the West and the Far East through the centuries, the answer to the question as to what extent one culture seems to depend upon another or tends to diverge therefrom as it shapes the life of a people. One after the other, an anthropologist, a student of law and jurisprudence, and a sociologist examined his field to supply the answer. The first passed in review 250,000 years of unrecorded development, the second turned to ancient legal history, the last, a student of colonial legislation, to the efforts of a great colonizing nation in our own day, to harmonize old tribal customs with the usages of so-called civilized nations. The accumulated knowledges of these specialists were all marshalled in their relation to this problem, together constituting a synthesis of effort and a result that was very illuminating upon this old question of the debt of one culture to another.

Such, in brief, was the plan and scope of the conference. The addresses themselves will be available later in printed form, so that no attempt will be made here at any extended review of their content. It remains but to sum up some of the implications of such a gathering for those interested in the rôle of the social sciences in our day, especially as they are presented in our schools and colleges. The absence from the conference of the professional educator, as contrasted with the specialist, was noticeable. He must of necessity play a prominent rôle in any successful integration of knowledge. Someone must translate results into programs, reaching on down into the lower stages of instruction. No attempt was made to do this at the conference. The major effort, as already noted, was to

indicate how far research has gone in unravelling that complex of human relations which we call society, with attention to the methods employed and the extent of the success achieved.

There was an entire absence of dogmatism even among speakers such as Copland, Mitchell, and Rappard, who had played important rôles in shaping the policies of their respective countries. One and all recognized the complexity and consequent difficulty of any analysis of man's relations to his fellowmen. Formulas, as such, found little place in their pronouncements, in spite of the pressure to enunciate them. The humble attitude of these savants might well be transmitted to the boys and girls and to the young men and women who crowd our educational institutions, as an important item in the preparation of this generation for the task ahead of them.

In the broad interpretation given to the social sciences, and the nexus of knowledge represented, it was very apparent that more and more reliance was being placed upon the findings of the historian, the economist, the political scientist, the sociologist, and the anthropologist. It was likewise apparent that the findings of the last four harked back again and again to the experience of mankind, whether recorded or unrecorded, and that this experience in itself constituted an ever fruitful field for study. In this connection it might be noted that about one-quarter of the speakers were classified on the program as historians. The moment an attempt was made to pass from the realm of actual experience to some form of political, sociological, or philosophical formula or dogma, that moment the element of uncertainty seemed to enter as to the precise relationships and operation of the human factors involved. William E. Rappard, one of the speakers at the conference, recently expressed the relation of such findings to the shaping of ideas and the formulation of policies, "While a professor might under certain circumstances be helpful in suggesting the means, he should never choose the aims for politicians to pursue." He said, in speaking of the Harvard celebration, "The thing that impressed me most of all was the fervent unanimity with which the intellectual gathering here condemned all forms of intolerance" (*New York Times*, September 22, 1936).

## Editor's Page

With the appearance of the October issue *The Social Studies* regretfully took leave of Mr. William G. Kimmel. He became Managing Editor in 1934, shortly before it ceased to be *The Historical Outlook*, and took the title of Editor following the death last February of the founder, Albert E. McKinley. In September Mr. Kimmel became Associate Editor of the John C. Winston Company, in Philadelphia. He has resigned his position as Associate in Civic Education at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Under Mr. Kimmel's direction *The Social Studies* broadened its interest, giving more systematic attention than formerly to civics and government, economics, and sociology. His wide background, including experience as New York state supervisor of social studies, as executive secretary of the Commission on the Social Studies, and as president of the National Council for Social Studies will be unwillingly spared in the fields of editing and teaching which he leaves.

Miss Katharine Elizabeth Crane became Assistant Editor of *The Social Studies* on September 1. Miss Crane, who took her doctorate in history at the University of Chicago after some years of teaching in secondary school and college, was Assistant Editor of the *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, and recently completed her work as Assistant Editor of the *Dictionary of American Biography*.

How do new editors—and those long in service, for that matter—find out what readers need and like? Of course a few can be questioned in conversation or by letter, but are they a fair sampling of subscribers? Are their replies representative? So far as can be determined everything *The Social Studies* has printed has been of value to at least a few readers—but what should be altered and what is missing? Were we right in dropping out the summary of recent events? Are you glad to have your attention called to a few recent magazine articles of note? Will increased attention to textbooks and teaching materials be useful? Are the annual review articles helpful? Are there neglected subjects that should be discussed in articles?

At present we believe *The Social Studies* should keep teachers of history, social studies, and the social sciences informed of new developments and ideas both in their special fields and in education as a whole, keeping them abreast of scholarship, calling their attention to new teaching materials and devices, and perhaps reminding them occasionally of older, tried materials. The magazine should be a clearing house for the ideas and experience of teachers. Ought there to be a "letter-box" to supplement the formal articles that most teachers find no time to write? If the letters come we'll provide the box! And we do need candid friends.

Mr. Wesley's "Guide to the Report of the Commission" in this issue should remind teachers of the continued importance of the many volumes which he surveys. Are those volumes serving class-room teachers now? Or must we wait for indirect influence through new textbooks and courses of study? We hope the "Guide" will increase the direct value of the Report.

# National Council for the Social Studies

*Annual Convention, Friday and Saturday, November 27 and 28, 1936*

Hotel Statler, Detroit, Michigan

*Friday, November 27*

8:00 A.M. Breakfast meeting, Board of Directors, National Council for the Social Studies.

10:00 A.M. General Session, Grand Ballroom.

C. C. Barnes, Second Vice-President and Local Chairman, presiding.

"Greetings." Frank Cody, Superintendent of Schools, Detroit.

"Response." Edgar B. Wesley, Former President of the National Council for the Social Studies, University of Minnesota.

Address: "Three Stubborn Traditions." D. L. Dumond, University of Michigan.

Address: "The Philippine Commonwealth." Frank Murphy, High Commissioner to the Philippine Commonwealth.

Arrangements will be made for informal luncheon discussions, limited in number, to take place at 12:30. Howard E. Wilson, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, will lead a group, "Guiding Pupils' Study of Their Own Communities"; Edgar B. Wesley, University of Minnesota, one on "Testing in the Social Studies"; R. H. Tryon, University of Chicago, one on "Is the Traditional Recitation in the Social Studies Obsolete?"; and Howard C. Hill, University of Chicago, one on "The Unit in the Social Studies."

2:30 P.M. Sectional Meetings

A. "The Status and Progress of the Social Studies Curriculum." Nelle E. Bowman, Public Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma, Chairman.

1. "To What Extent Do Current Conditions Demand Curriculum Changes?" Jacob C. Meyer, Western Reserve University, Cleveland.

2. "Trends in Social Studies Programs in the South." Florence R. Tryon, Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee.

3. "Experiments With a Six-Year Curriculum in the Social Studies." Arthur H. Moehlman, Ohio State University, Columbus.

4. "Recent Trends in the Social Studies and What Detroit is Doing About Them." Paul T. Rankin, Supervising Director, Curriculum and Research, Detroit.

B. "The Training of Social Studies Teachers." Smith Burnham, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan, Chairman.

1. "The Preparation of the Teacher in Scholarship." J. Lynn Barnard, Ursinus College, Collegeville, Pa.

2. "The Harvard Program in Teacher Training." Howard E. Wilson, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

3. "An Elastic Technique in Teaching." Roy W. Hatch, State Teachers College, Montclair, N.J.

4. "Living as Training for Teaching." Ernest Burnham, State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

C. "Progressive Practices in Social Studies Teaching." Kenneth M. Gould, New York City, Chairman.

1. "The Use of Current Events Magazines." Walter E. Myer, Washington, D.C.

2. "The Radio in Social Studies Teaching." S. Howard Evans, Secretary, National Committee on Education by Radio, New York City.

3. "Practical Projects in Politics and Citizenship." Prudence B. Trimble, Schenley High School, Pittsburgh.

(The time for each of these sectional meetings will cover approximately two hours. This time will be divided as nearly evenly as may be among the topics considered in relation to the general theme. Approximately half of each period will be used for general discussion following the presentation of the topic by the speaker introducing it.)

6:30 P.M. Dinner, Grand Ballroom, Hotel Statler.

Elmer Ellis, First Vice-President, National Council for the Social Studies, presiding.

Presidential Address: R. O. Hughes, President, National Council for the Social Studies, Public Schools, Pittsburgh, "Social Sanity Through the Social Studies."

"Honor To Whom Honor is Due." Howard E. Wilson, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., Secretary-Treasurer, National Council for the Social Studies.  
Presentation of "The March of Time."

*Saturday, November 28*

9:30 A.M. Sectional Meetings.

- A. "The Social Studies in the Elementary Grades." Mary G. Kelty, Chicago, Illinois, Chairman.
1. "Articulation in the Social Studies Among the Various School Levels." Orlando W. Stephenson, University of Michigan.
  2. "Utilizing Community Resources in the Social Studies Program In the Elementary Grades." Mary Harden, Horace Mann School, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.
  3. "Individualizing Instruction in the Social Studies." Meredith W. Darlington, Director of Elementary Course Instruction, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.
- B. "Indoctrination and Propaganda—What and How Much?" A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Chairman.
1. "For Democracy?" Erling M. Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
  2. "For the Merit System in the Civil Service?" Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City.
  3. "For Peace?" Thomas D. Brown, Jr., Public Schools, Oakwood, Dayton, Ohio.
  4. "For a New Social Order?" R. W. Cordier, State Teachers College, Clarion, Pa.
- C. "The Study of International Relations and Policies." W. F. English, Public Schools, Carrollton, Missouri, Chairman.
1. "Anglo-American Relations." W. A. Butcher, John F. Nuner Junior High School, South Bend, Indiana.
  2. "Dictatorships." Frederick Heimberger, Ohio State University, Columbus.
  3. "The Far East." Robert B. Hall, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.
  4. "World Associations." A. W. Cordier, Manchester College, North Manchester, Indiana.

(The sectional meetings for Saturday morning will be conducted in much the same way as the meetings of Friday afternoon. Some meetings may take the form of a panel discussion.)

12:00 Luncheon.

R. O. Hughes, President, and National Council for the Social Studies, presiding. Business Session. Address: (arrangements under way). "Looking Forward." Elmer Ellis, First Vice-President, National Council for the Social Studies, University of Missouri, Columbia.



## Among the Summer Magazines

KATHARINE ELIZABETH CRANE

Summer reading is devoted traditionally to the lightest froth, but, as a matter of fact, for many of us summer is a time to weigh values and to re-examine ideas, to recuperate our minds as well as our bodies. To that end many go to summer schools, many travel, many devote themselves to cherished research and writing, and many read widely in the varied literature of ideas. Yet the whole field of that literature, being as it is the product of many centuries and many lands, is entirely beyond the range of any one person's knowledge. Each must take his stimulus where he finds it.

By the accident of our civilization some of the most influential writing about ourselves and our times appears in the current periodical literature, to have its hour of influence and importance and to be lost again almost as irrevocably as last summer's sunshine. Few things seem more faded than even the influential magazines of a past generation, and we have a strange sense of unreality and futility, when, owing to a rainy spell by the seaside, a delayed train, or a visit to the waiting-room of a thoughtless dentist, we find ourselves reading last year's magazine. This attitude is strange, too, because old magazines are interesting. Not only do they contain some of the poetry and novels of the great Victorian and later periods as well as interesting fugitive materials, but also, as a whole, they record an important part of the cultural history of their time. What is true of magazines fifty years old is probably true of magazines a few months old. We probably must recognize as fact the statement that scholars of the future will find in our magazines the story of our ambitions and attainments.

Therefore, in spite of a recognition of this ephemeral quality in magazines, it is without too much hesitation that I undertake to review some of the stimulating articles of the summer's magazines. The selection must be regarded as haphazard in most cases and highly personal in all cases. No attempt has been made to select the most interesting articles or the group most worthy of attention. They are only some of those that came to my attention and held my interest.

### ELECTION BITTERNESS

It is natural that the summer of an election year should devote much of its attention to the political campaign. Among the many articles on the opposing candidates, two, especially, in *Harpers Magazine*, by their very bitterness, call attention pleasantly to the fact that, although we feared the prophecies of a "dirty campaign," those prophecies have not been abundantly fulfilled. At best political campaigns are not scrupulously conducted, but, in the memory of the Cleveland-Blaine or the Hoover-Smith campaign, we cannot but rejoice that in this year the worst has not been realized.

The *Harpers* series began last May with the suggestive title "They Hate Roosevelt" by Marquis Childs, setting forth the opinion that it is the rich who

are most opposed to Roosevelt's re-election, and analyzing the motives and selfish purposes behind such opposition. With the August issue, in an article well salted with wit, "But I, Too, Hate Roosevelt," Robert Hale challenges Childs's statement that only the rich oppose Roosevelt. The author, for some time a member of the Maine House of Representatives and, for a term, its speaker, describes himself as one of those who "have always lived by the sweat of our brows, and on the whole liked it" and says that, although fairly certain about the source of his next meal, "I never have been and am not now sure about next year's meals." As further proof of his lack of fellowship with the rich he adds that "I don't know anyone with a present income of fifty thousand dollars a year."

In a hasty survey of past "President-hating," he shows something of his own not too conventional political mind. He describes the haters of Theodore Roosevelt's "demagoguery and truculent bombast" as men who "sensed that he would never profoundly modify the course of American business, at least not for the better, and . . . were shrewd enough to perceive that his political devices, like the direct primary, the initiative, and the referendum, were a blow at representative democracy from which it might never recover." Hale admits that he "never had so much patience with the Woodrow Wilson haters" and "was not immune to the nobility of his idealism or to the spell of his great phrases." Yet, believing, still believing, in the League of Nations, he, nevertheless, accepts the justice of the charge of Wilson's "compromising when he should have stood immovable, and his standing immovable when he should have compromised."

The article recalls with some uneasiness one sentence in the President's address to Congress on January 4, 1935, "In spite of our efforts and in spite of our talk, we have not weeded out the overprivileged, and we have not effectively lifted up the underprivileged." If this is the President's position, where does Hale belong? "Am I, with my industry and my debts, destined for the lifting-up process, or am I, because I have earned more than the minimum necessary for my survival, on the weeding-out list?" He is at pains to point out that with him in this quandary are all other people who save, have saved, or derive any portion of their income or sense of security from savings, though it be only fifty dollars in the bank against a rainy day. "But people who save *some* money in the hope that they will derive *some* benefit from those savings are still in the majority in this country, and they have never heretofore been accounted its worst citizens."

Disclaiming interest in the question "whether the President is sincere" with "I don't care," he does, however, speak of Groton, Harvard, Hyde Park, and vacations on the *Nourmahal* as well as "inability to abide criticism." With some further comment on the Roosevelt family he passes on to answer Childs's charge that those who oppose Roosevelt's re-election have no realization of the present plight of the world. He protests that "Mr. Childs thinks I'm pretty dumb, but even I do not imagine that I thrive on my neighbors' sleeping on the park bench."

From his point of view the fact that "in the seventh year of the depression, and in the fourth of the New Deal, there are still twelve million unemployed and

the relief costs are still mounting is *the* outstanding significant fact. It proves to my satisfaction that we are still wandering in the wilderness despite the blithe voice still crying, 'We are on our way.' "

In the end he ventures the opinion that "If we attempted, for example, to restore the conditions under which capitalism once functioned with an international gold standard, international trade, relative freedom of business to face its own responsibilities, and a recognition of the respectability of its profit motive and property rights, there might be fewer unemployed." Nevertheless, "if capitalism is *passé*, if it is inconsistent with machine technology and with a nation without frontiers, let us reach that solution by a fair appeal to our people and go about creating a new society with determination. . . . If our constitution is really horse and buggy, let us forthwith convene a constitutional convention and get a new one."

Toward the end of the article Hale makes an arresting remark, which might serve as the starting point for a fairly satisfactory philosophy of life, "I might in passing, ask for a show of hands on those who can define the distinction between a property right and a human right."

#### ANOTHER ANSWER TO MR. CHILDS

Another answer, briefer and more bitter, to Mr. Childs was published in the section "Personal and Otherwise" of the July issue. I quote it in full:

"Representing the class who do hate Roosevelt, I can very quickly give you some direct reasons why they do.

1. A product of Groton and Harvard, and a frequent guest on the Astor palatial yacht, he uses demagogic methods to create the impression that those of us privileged to enjoy these educational and social advantages are doing so at the expense of the unemployed.

2. He refused to co-operate with Mr. Hoover in the winter of 1932 and thus delayed measures which might have saved the banks and thousands of people from ruin.

3. He has built up a bureaucracy throughout the entire nation which has become a vote-getting machine.

4. He has squandered the taxpayers' money on boondoggling schemes, the worst examples of which can be seen in Maine and in Florida.

5. He can never be depended upon, his moods vary, and his nearest associates doubt his intellectual integrity.

6. His family have behaved in such a way that they should remain discreetly in the background. Instead, his wife and daughter lecture other women on various subjects for which they have shown no qualification.

7. If we are richer than we were in 1933, we feel that this is despite and not because of Roosevelt. We see the debt of the nation growing larger, and we feel that we are no longer working for the future security of our families. We see socialism being practiced in every department of the government. We see the trades unions, the farmers, and other small groups being supported at the expense of the great middle classes.

## CAN THE PRESIDENCY BE BOUGHT

Paul W. Ward in his "Washington Weekly" of the *Nation*, September 26, 1936, presents another side of the political picture. He writes "Primary returns, registration figures, and the straw-vote crop to date leave little room for doubt that Roosevelt will be re-elected in handsome fashion on November 3, but that little room is thoroughly and efficiently filled by a single question: 'Isn't it still possible for big business to buy the Presidency for Alf?' My own belief is that the answer is no. I hold that the Presidency—at least this year—is not purchasable and that, even if it were, the price would be too high for the Liberty League. But I do not urge that belief upon you here. My purpose, instead, is to set down a few clinical notes and let you draw your own conclusions."

He points out that "as a matter of fact, the amount of outright vote-buying in a Presidential Campaign is negligible. . . . The money that counts is spent not on buying votes but on getting out the vote, and the rest is spent on propaganda. Enormous sums are spent on printing and broadcasting . . . most of it . . . stupid, ineffectual stuff. . . . Only the appeals to racial, religious, and class prejudice click in substantial fashion, and these must be handled not only gingerly, but also subterraneously, for they cut both ways."

After speaking of some of the individuals and interests that have contributed generously to the funds of the two major parties, he adds, "Then, too, as the campaign nears its climax and the fat cats backing Landon become more doubtful that they have put their money on the winning entry, there will be a rush to hedge those bets; corporations whose presidents have given thousands to the Landon campaign will produce vice-presidents eager to put up at least a few thousands for Roosevelt."

## ANOTHER ELECTION PROPHECY

With Ward's estimate of the election probabilities the *New Republic* for September 23, does not agree. "Straw votes indicate a close election. But it will not be equally close in all states. . . . According to the latest poll of the Institute of Public Opinion—which we regard as approximately correct—the safely Republican states are Maine, Vermont, Kansas, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Hampshire and South Dakota, while the safely Democratic are those of the solid South, plus Nevada, Utah, Tennessee, North Dakota, Kentucky, Colorado, New Mexico, Montana, Missouri, Oregon, and Maryland. . . . But in the others—and particularly in New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, Minnesota, and Wisconsin the vote is close.

## UTILITIES AND COMPETITION

Also in the July copy of *Harpers* there is a discussion of issues closely associated with Roosevelt "Teaching Grandmother How to Spin. The TVA and the Private Utilities." The writer, William I. Nichols, is at present director of electrical development under the Tennessee Valley Authority, and in the past was employed by a large public utility as advertizing manager. He has also had a varied experience as newspaper reporter, secretary to the mayor of Boston, and

dean of freshmen at Harvard College. From a summary in the *Electrical World* of the business of private power companies, he argues that they are not in a bad way at all, judged by such standards as increases in "average use" for each consumer, amount of power distributed, or number of appliances sold. Of the Southern companies he writes in delicate derision of their eloquent protestations of the harm done by TVA, but "if you leave them alone they almost forget that they have been ruined. Advertisements, stockholders' letters, and annual reports glow with pleasant announcements of increases in use, reductions in rates, and gains in earnings, gross and net."

Pointing out that the regions in which business improvement bulks largest are those on the Pacific coast affected by the publicly-owned light plants of Seattle, Tacoma, Los Angeles, and Pasadena, and in the southeast by the federal TVA, he maintains the thesis that much of this increase of business has been due to the psychological and economic effect of government competition. "One Country Banker put it this way: 'The power fellows have been eating salmon long enough. TVA's making them catch mice for a change. It'll do them good.'"

On the whole he thinks it is "not a question of conquest and annihilation, but rather a matter of strenuous emulation and rivalry toward a common goal . . . the electrification of the South as an incident in the electrification of America. . . . It is a mistake to define the problem narrowly, in terms of government versus business. . . . Rather, it should be recognized as a symptom of the restless desire for change and improvement which has been one of the saving characteristics of America. . . . It is only when a particular group becomes lazy and inert, when it fails to recognize and accept a challenge, that one need worry about the 'American system.'"

#### VOTER'S HANDBOOK

For its issue of September 23 the editors of the *New Republic* have prepared a special section "Voter's Handbook" with histories of the parties, biographies of the candidates, analyses of the platforms, illustrative charts, and, finally, the editors' advice for voters. Any such analysis must always be biased, one way or another, but I have no intention of undertaking to analyze the point of view of the editors or of presenting my own. That involves a review of all one knows of American history, of the history of civilization, and of human nature as well as one's own philosophy of life and government. I merely present this reference for the interest of any readers and quote from the last article "The Editor's Choice," "The stronger the democratic movement, the better the chance, no matter what happens. There is at present no reliable political instrument in the United States for carrying out this purpose. The Republican Party automatically crosses itself out. The Democratic Party, under pressure from the recent economic collapse, has vaguely experimented in the direction of social control, but it has no consistent program and its whole tendency appears to depend largely on the accident of leadership. It wants chiefly to remain in power, and to do so by combining the best of two worlds, by pleasing everybody at once. The Socialist



and Communist Parties, avowedly dedicated to a new order, have no chance of winning. . . . The Union Party includes so much demagoguery that, if it were stronger, it would actually be dangerous. It is the nearest thing to embryo Fascism we have in this country."

#### THE RAILROADS

The September issue of *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science* is devoted to a symposium on railroads and government, edited by G. Lloyd Wilson. Even if he has failed to notice the recent rise of prices for railroad shares on the stock market, the most casual observer of American life must be aware that some change has come over the railroad situation—what with air-conditioning, streamlines for fashion's sake if not economy's, and comfortable chairs, all for less money. Yet it is not in those terms that the various articles seek to analyze the present situation. This is a series of technical discussions of railroad transportation, of which freight is of course by far the most important, services, labor, finances, and ownership, with an effort to set forth some views about the probable and desirable future of development and control.

Without denying that any adequate opinion must be based on such technical information and judgment as is beyond the reach of the untrained citizen, it is, nevertheless, necessary to face the fact that the ordinary man, a voter, must arrive at some opinions. Whatever may be the rights or wrongs of any attempt at political solution of economic problems, it seems evident that the demand for government ownership will be increasingly pressing in Congress and at the polls. The Wheeler bill has been lost, but another will take its place.

Motives and interests vary. In the financial world there is some sentiment among bond-holders, because they believe that railroads will not realize a reasonable profit in the near or, perhaps, the far future, that their own situation might be improved by government ownership. The sentiment of labor is difficult to analyze. Workers are, quite naturally, interested in maintaining the present rate of wages and in obtaining national payment of pensions and unemployment compensation. If the financial future of private ownership seems precarious, their obvious recourse is to government ownership of lines and stabilization of wages.

For the voter and taxpayer there are many aspects. There is the question of loss of income from railroad taxes, even under the Wheeler bill that undertook to leave the taxation of such federal property to the discretion of local office holders, as well as such difficulties as those of exercising the right of eminent domain to obtain control of the railroads, in the face of the power of the courts to decide what constitutes a fair bargain. Another important consideration is the problem of providing against political control. Henry A. Palmer, editor and manager of *The Traffic World*, an independent transportation weekly, in his contribution to this symposium, "A Critique of the Wheeler-Eastman Government Ownership Plan," quotes the bill's provision for government administration "without regard to any political party interests" and then adds his own comments, "Just as simple as that! We just say in the law that there shall be no

politics and there isn't any! Does anyone over the age of twelve years who knows anything about the way public affairs are conducted in this country believe that such provisions would avail to keep the management of government-owned railroads out of politics?" Palmer is equally skeptical about the difficulties of insuring "that competent persons would be appointed and employed to run them. . . . Suppose the appointees were attacked as also being incompetent for the task assigned. The President would have merely to say that, in his opinion, they were eminently qualified for their jobs—much better than some suggested railroad presidents, who had been unable to operate their properties so that the Government would not have to take them over—and that the Senate agreed with him. And that would be that."

#### THE NEWSPAPER OF TOMORROW

In the Summer issue of *The American Scholar* George Fort Mason, the editor of the *Chattanooga News* and author of *The Age of Hate* and *The Eve of Conflict*, offers his ideas about "The Newspaper of Tomorrow." His opening paragraph is a statement of his general philosophy of permanence and change. "Whenever the world is in ferment none of its institutions or techniques is likely to be impervious to change. Particularly is this true today when there is movement, adaptation and experiment throughout our economic and social patterns. Thus it is that nowadays the clergy concern themselves with here more than with hereafter, corporation lawyers think occasionally of their functional relation to society, and the men behind the newspaper shows signs of dissatisfaction with journalism's most sacred cows. And this is as it should be: no institution which does not continually test its ideals, techniques and measure of accomplishment can claim real vitality. In the institution as in the individual, complacency and self-righteousness are the seeds of decline and fall."

Another paragraph constitutes his view of the development of newspaper making. "Now the reasons for editorial decline are not difficult to seek. The great editors of half a century ago were primarily political partisans, men whose sulphurous vocabularies were ever at the service of their parties or its candidates. Then came the mechanization and the commercialization of the newspaper. The field of ownership began to be invaded by more and more men who looked at the newspapers as business rather than profession. Either these men were absentee owners, or, if in the papers, they were concerned with the mysteries of milling rates, circulation breakdown, competent advertising selling staffs, new presses, modernization of composing rooms—in a word with the newspaper as factory or business. As men of capital their views tended to be the views of their fellows in banks, factories and stores. As men of business they wanted to avoid the unpleasant clash and jangle of acrid editorial controversy. The development was quite understandable—and just too bad."

He sees in radio and probably in the perfection of television agents "to force newspapers to do a better, a more constructive and interpretative job," to "see the deeper meaning in the news," and to share that with readers. In the end he quotes Joseph Pulitzer, as do most newspaper men today—it is hard to

remember that Pulitzer's name once was anathema. "The power to mould the future of the Republic will be in the hands of the journalism of future generations."

#### CARL VAN DOREN'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY

The chapters of Carl Van Doren's autobiographical history of his times, which have appeared in the *Harpers Magazine*, are not to be summarized. This collection of memories and experiences of literary life and people in those strange years after the World War may not be important, and it certainly has no pattern to be defined and described. It deals with a life long forgotten by those still living, and its interest—and that interest is great to those for whom it exists at all—lies in a phrase, a description, an incident from Van Doren's ancient past.

#### THE PALACE OF MINOS

"The Palace of Minos" by Stanley Casson of New College, Oxford, in the August *Atlantic* deals with the problem of reconstructing from archaeological remains the fabric of the life and culture of an all but vanished civilization. The romantic story of the grocer's boy who dreamed of the buried city of Troy caught the imagination of most of us in our youth, and the record of his achievement is part of the warp and woof of our thinking. Yet Casson's analysis of the elements of his amazing scientific success as an archaeologist is illuminating. "Schliemann's reports on Troy, his first excavation, are marvels of detail and accuracy, and reek of the grocery—as indeed they should, for excavation bears a distinct likeness to the reassembly of a scattered hardware store. And when Schliemann was excavating, learned scholars were scoffing; and when many of these scholars themselves excavated, the results of their excavations were so badly and insufficiently recorded that now their work is worthless, while much of Schliemann's remains. No matter how acquired, this flair for handling *Realien* is one of the prerequisites of excavation. The hands of the expert have fingers; those of the amateur seem to be solid lumps."

In speaking of the publication of the last volume of the *Palace of Minos* by Sir Arthur Evans, and of the immense archaeological enterprise he remarks that "it was thus to the immense good fortune of all future learning that Cnossus fell into the right hands. . . . By 1894, Evans had gained control of the site of Cnossus and begun the preliminary researches so essential to an undertaking of such magnitude. Systematic excavation was begun in 1900, and with the exception of the pause during the war, has been continued ever since. The first bulky volume of the *Palace of Minos* appeared in 1921, the last has come out in 1935."

Cnossus was not an unknown site. In the Hellenic and Roman periods it was a small city, whose coins bore "the sign and symbol of the city, a maze design, recording the dim legend of the Labyrinth, where, as the Greeks know, Theseus had battled with the Minotaur. And that was almost all that the Greeks knew of the great Minoan world." It was not until the turn of the twentieth century that much more was known.

By the middle of the nineteenth century, before the work at Cnossus had

begun, Mycenae and Tiryns had already been excavated, but with only the evidence dug up from those cities it was not possible to know their origin and genesis—in what relationship they stood to Crete. "It was as though an excavator of the future had commenced his researches into mediaeval Gothic England by first excavating Hampton Court!" Only with the excavation of Cnossus did it become evident that "Crete was the creator and centre of a very long-lived and virile civilization" with a "continuous history of two and a half millenia, with an equally long, or even longer, preliminary primitive history" and "that Mycenae and Tiryns and all the sites in Greece of that type belonged to the closing centuries by the Minoan development and were a mere postscript to a much longer story."

"Most excavators are content to dig, to remove the most important objects and repair the ruins excavated roughly and then depart, leaving the site to look after itself. Evans saw at once that the remains of this Palace and its associated buildings," built as they were of the local gypsum rock, "would moulder away into rubble if they were left in the open air as they were found." Owing to his care, "those who travel to Cnossus see, not a flat area of ruins like Olympia or Delos, but a low massive building, the Palace itself, roofed, re-created, protected, to be wandered through as if it had never perished. . . . He is living in the very atmosphere of the Cretan world."

"The revelation of the Minoan world in all its complexities and detail, with all its skill and beauty, must always rank as the greatest achievement of modern scientific archaeology. Some excavations reveal cultures that add nothing at all to our knowledge of art and beauty, like the cultures of Palestine, where no ancient site has yet produced a single native work of art of any merit whatsoever. Such excavations have only a historical value. Other cultures, like that of the Aztec, reveal an art, stern and lovely, but indicative of indescribable cruelty and barbarism. Others still refashion for us a world where mere comfort and safety were the objectives . . . like the culture of the Indus valley. But Crete proves to be an enchanted island where there was almost nothing sordid or grossly material, where the main brutalities of existence were forgotten and life was happy."

## News and Comment

### "RED" CHARGES IN PHILADELPHIA

Charges that books and magazines, advocating sedition, atheism, sex freedom, free love and all the isms of Communists are put in the hands of youngsters in their "teens" are reported in Philadelphia newspapers of September 9 and 10. The accusations were made by P. M. Allen, chairman of the Americanization Committee of the Pennsylvania Commandery, Military Order of the Loyal Legion of the United States, and were directed particularly at Miss Ruth Wanger, principal of the South Philadelphia High School for Girls, though E. C. Broome and Parks Schoch, superintendent and associate superintendent of schools, were also held responsible.

Miss Wanger, who was formerly head of history and social studies in her school, met the charges squarely:

What would the man have us do? Blot out the pages which referred in any way to Russia? Have our maps redrawn so that the U.S.S.R. fails to appear on them?

What an awful thought, that our youngsters aren't able to consider Russia and Russian history in the same light with other countries, such as Germany and Italy.

For, in the same sense that we "teach" Communism, we also "teach" Nazi-ism.

Our "Americanization chairman" takes a very narrow view when he does not recognize that, in teaching children about America we must teach them about America in its relation to other countries of the world (*Philadelphia Record*, September 10).

Elaborating this view in a statement quoted in another newspaper Miss Wanger expressed views which will receive the assent of many other thoughtful and patriotic teachers:

I believe democracy offers the best form of government, but it cannot exist in a constantly changing world unless the citizen population are alert to keep it a government of, by and for the people. To know about other governments is not to advocate them. One of the problems of democracy is its relations to other countries.

It is impossible to talk about relations unless we know what these countries are like. Hence it seems valuable to know of Communist, Fascist and other foreign policies. For that reason information is given about modern governments and the forms which they have taken.

If we do not discuss Communism and Fascism in the schools we leave our children to prejudiced outside influences. The schools are the only agency with no axe to grind and with highly-trained teachers can present an unbiased picture. If we do not discuss Communism the children form impressions from the man on the street, the speech maker and movies and the results are usually frightful.

What we teach in the public schools comes as a result of years of study with an eagerness to do my part as an American citizen to improve my country. As to results our school has been functioning for 20 years and our graduates have done creditable work and been loyal citizens. Surely that is proof and real proof of the kind of work we are doing. Our policies at present are no different from what they have been in the past so that the present agitation seems uncalled for.

You can take parts of many books—beginning with the Bible—which you wouldn't want innocent children to read. There are parts of the Bible like that, but we are required to read the Bible in the schools. No book on our lists is shocking as a whole, although there may be occasional shocking paragraphs such as you may find in the Bible or Shakespeare. (*Evening Bulletin*, Philadelphia, September 9).



Miss Wanger declared that a unit of the Young Communist League in her school had been disbanded on her orders; the only discussions of "free love" had been discreet and directed against the harmful influence of some movies and magazines.

Dr. Broome, as reported in the *Evening Bulletin*, termed the charges "silly," asserting: "I am a good sincere American citizen, an ex-service man and thoroughly in accord with American ideals." Dr. Edward Martin, recently elected president of the Board of Education, promised an investigation, though he doubted the validity of the charges. He declared that "teachers will not be prohibited from explaining the principles of Communism any more than they will be denied the right to explain the principles of democracy or monarchism or Fascism," since such restrictions would keep pupils in ignorance and amount to bigotry.

#### NEW YORK STATE SURVEY

Howard E. Wilson of Harvard University and Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota have joined the staff of the New York State Survey for the purpose of evaluating social-studies instruction in the elementary schools of New York.

#### AMONG THE PROFESSIONAL MAGAZINES

Discussing "The Curriculum and Life" in the September issue of *The Clearing House*, Lloyd N. Morrisett condemns the traditional college preparatory curriculum as divorced from reality and as particularly unsuited to the eighty per cent of secondary school pupils who do not go on to college.

"I wish I had been taught more," writes his dissatisfied graduate of the class of 1930, "about family relationships, child care, getting along with people, interpreting the news, news writings, paying off a small mortgage, household mechanics, politics, local government, the chemistry of food, carpentry, how to budget and live within a budget, the value of insurance, how to figure interest when borrowing money and paying it back in instalments, how to enjoy opera over the radio, how to detect shoddy goods, how to distinguish a political demagogue from a statesman, how to grow a garden, how to paint a house, how to get a job, how to be vigorous and healthy, how to be interesting to others, how to be popular, how to be thrifty, how to resist high pressure salesmanship, how to buy economically and intelligently, and the danger of buying on the instalment plan."

The curriculum, Dr. Morrisett urges, must be thought of "in terms of pupils rather than subject matter"; the technique necessary to attaining the desired end is that of constantly solving in school genuine and significant problems.

The succeeding article in the same issue of *The Clearing House*, "Thirty-Two States Plan Curriculum Revision," by F. A. Babyeat, indicates that efforts are being made to apply some of the principles stressed by Dr. Morrisett.

*The School Review* for September gives attention to the same subject in an

article on "The Need of the Newer Subjects" by Homer J. Smith of the University of Minnesota, in which he urges the case for art, music, and play, for industrial arts, homemaking and agriculture, for physical education, speech, and "the new citizenship."

"An Election Project for the Social Studies" is briefly described by F. M. Lawson of the Sacramento (California) Senior High School in the September issue of *The Clearing House*. A preliminary study of parties was followed by dramatization.

Teachers concerned with vocational education may be interested in the description of the occupations program of a Missouri town of 16,000 which is contributed to the September issue of *The Clearing House* by W. E. Rosenstengel and F. Nixon under the title "Apprentices in Stores and Shops." In addition to a special program of courses students work at least twenty hours a week, for pay, at jobs which offer possibilities of advancement.

*The Scholastic* has announced the publication of two editions each week. The Regular Edition will serve classes in English or those in which English is correlated with social studies, and a Social Studies Edition will be published for use in history and social science courses. Both editions will conform in size, price, and magazine style to the old *Scholastic*. A special teacher's desk copy will include suggested assignments, study guides, and other teaching aids.

#### SELECTED TEST ITEMS IN AMERICAN HISTORY

A publication which is of universal interest and use to social studies is Bulletin No. 6 of the National Council for the Social Studies. The Bulletin, *Selected Test Items in American History*, presents 652 test items culled from the Iowa State Tests in American History of recent years. The test items, arranged roughly in chronological order, include matching multiple-choice, and true-false exercises.

The foreword to the Bulletin states that "It is expected that teachers will select from the list of test exercises in the Bulletin whatever items seem best for a given testing situation in their own classrooms. That is to say, teachers may use the Bulletin as a reservoir of test items from which to secure the materials for constructing a test focused specifically on the topics which have been taught. Teachers and school officers are free to reproduce in mimeographed or printed form whatever of the test items they desire to use so long as the reproduced materials are not used for commercial purposes."

The bulletin was prepared by Howard R. Anderson and E. F. Lindquist of the State University of Iowa.

#### METHODS COURSES IN HISTORY AND SOCIAL STUDIES

Miss Nathalie Delander of the River Falls (Wisconsin) State Teachers College has recently completed a questionnaire study of special methods courses in

history and social studies. Replies from sixty-four instructors in representative teacher training institutions of thirty-nine states reveal that:

1. Special methods courses in history or social studies are offered in four-fifths of these institutions.

2. Instructors in over half of these institutions are drawn from the education rather than the subject matter departments.

3. Little uniformity exists in providing for observation and practice teaching. Unlike most liberal arts colleges the teachers colleges tend to correlate special methods with practice teaching, but only 15 per cent of all the institutions offer courses uniting the three aspects of training. There is great diversity both in prerequisites and in credit for the three types of training, credit for special methods ranging from one to thirteen quarter hours. 85 per cent of the institutions require special methods courses of majors in history who plan to teach.

4. About 80 per cent of the institutions maintain campus training schools and 42 per cent of these make use of off-campus schools as well.

5. The topics most frequently treated in special methods courses are teaching aids and devices, lesson planning, use of the textbook, knowledge of subject matter, and the selection and organization of subject matter. Those least often treated are standardized tests, extra-curricular activities, research, educational associations, and the history and status of history and social studies teaching. Under ideal conditions instructors would give more attention to reference material, bibliographies, correlation with other subjects, visual aids, and provisions for individual differences, and would decrease attention to routine and discipline. It is customary throughout the institutions which provided data to stress teaching aids and devices, lesson planning and assignments, and the principal types and methods of teaching.

The full report is on file in the library of the University of Minnesota.

Howard R. Jones, in a master's thesis entitled, "The Knowledge of Contemporary Affairs Possessed by College of Education Seniors at the University of Minnesota," found a lamentable deficiency in information concerning current happenings on the part of graduating seniors. Some slight satisfaction may be derived, however, from the fact that students majoring in the social studies achieved significantly higher scores than students majoring in other departments. In general, the scores made by the men exceeded the scores made by the women.

The United States Office of Education has just issued *Good References on the Activity Program* (Bibliography No. 48), compiled by Grace S. Wright. Copies may be had free of charge upon application to the United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D.C.

#### LOCAL HISTORY INSTITUTE?

The organization at Old Fort Niagara, New York, of a summer school devoted to local history was proposed by Dr. A. C. Flick at the annual meeting of the New York State Historical Association at Niagara Falls in September. The school would serve elementary and secondary teachers, librarians, and curators. Through demonstration classes and field work in the old Niagara frontier region, practical training could be given in the use of a rich but generally neglected aspect of historical study. In urging the importance of local history in teaching civics, geography, economics, and English as well as history, Dr. Flick declared:

Pedagogically, it is valuable because it proceeds from the known to the unknown, from the simple to the complex. It employs interest as a motive, stimulates pride in a locality and makes for good citizenship. It illustrates the operation of the laws of persistence and change, of cause and effect, and of unity. And its effects are permanent.

Dr. Flick recognized the difficulties due to the deficiencies of teachers and the overcrowded state of the curriculum.

A committee was organized to formulate plans for the school under the joint auspices of the Old Fort Niagara, the New York State, and the Ontario historical associations.

#### MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION OF HISTORY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS

The annual November meeting of the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers will be held at Teachers College, Columbia University, on Friday-Saturday, November 20-21, 1936. The general topics will be the training and continued stimulation of teachers of history, social studies, and social science, and integration in school and college.

#### NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING

Educational broadcasting will be the subject of a national conference in Washington, D.C., on December 10, 11, and 12, 1936, which will be sponsored by eighteen national organizations in co-operation with the United States Office of Education and the Federal Communications Commission.

The topics to be discussed include schools of the air, radio music, speech and drama, forums on the air, organization of listening groups, broadcasting to schools, use of radio programs by colleges and universities, and educational broadcasting in other countries.

All organizations interested in radio as a social force, nationally or regionally, are invited to participate. The Executive Secretary of the Conference is C. S. Marsh, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

#### MUSIC APPRECIATION PROGRAMS

Teachers interested in the correlation of music with social studies should write to the National Broadcasting Company, Inc., R.C.A. Building, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City, for the schedule of programs of the N.B.C. Music Appreciation Hour which began on October 9. An instructor's manual, prepared by Walter Damrosch and Lawrence Abbott, is available to individuals for twenty-five cents, postpaid, or to schools for twenty cents. A 32-page student's notebook, including thematic illustrations, pictures of composers, and tests may be purchased for ten cents.

#### AMERICAN COUNCIL OF LEARNED SOCIETIES

##### Grants in Aid of Research

The American Council of Learned Societies is able to offer a limited number of small grants, ordinarily not exceeding \$300, to individual scholars to assist

them in carrying on definite projects of research, already commenced, in the humanistic sciences: philosophy, philology, literature and linguistics, art and musicology, archaeology, and cultural and intellectual history. Applicants must possess the doctorate or its equivalent, must be citizens or permanent residents of the United States or Canada, and must be in personal need of the assistance for which they apply and unable to secure it from other sources. Grants are not awarded for the fulfillment of requirements for any academic degree.

Applications must be made in duplicate on special forms which will be supplied on request, and must be filed before January 15, 1937. For further information and for application forms, address the secretary for Fellowships and Grants, American Council of Learned Societies, 907 Fifteenth Street N.W., Washington, D.C.

#### ANNUAL FALL MEETING OF THE NEW ENGLAND HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

The Annual Fall Meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association will be held at Boston University on Saturday, November 7. The general topic of the meeting will be "Some Current Problems and Their Background." The luncheon will be held at the Copley Square Hotel directly after the meeting.

#### ANNUAL MEETING OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The program for the Thanksgiving meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies at Detroit is printed elsewhere in this issue. The sessions will be held at the Hotel Statler on Friday and Saturday, November 27-28.

For reservations address the chairman of the committee on local arrangements, C. C. Barnes, Director of Social Studies, Detroit Public Schools.

*Readers are invited to send in news of interest to teachers of social studies or the social sciences, and to call attention to publications of general interest.*

*Contributors to "Recent Happenings" this month include R. O. Hughes, W. G. Kimmel, and H. E. Wilson.*



# Book Reviews and Book Notes

## AMONG THE TEXTBOOKS

### 1. *American History in Senior High School*

[NOTE: *This is the first of a series of articles on school textbooks in history, social studies, and the social sciences. At least two texts will be discussed in each issue. Senior and Junior high school American history, European history, and world history publications will be reviewed during this school year, in the order named, and textbooks in civics, economics, and problems of democracy will also be considered.*]

Throughout the twentieth century the content of school history courses has been an object of repeated attack, investigation, and recommendation. The recognition of economics, government, and sociology in the school curriculum, the adoption of courses called "social studies" instead of "history," and the experimentation with a variety of principles of organizing the study of man's achievement and experience bear obvious witness to a revolution which, if some educators had had their way, would have driven history from the classroom. So far, however, history has survived both the chastisements of its enemies and the ministrations of its friends, though it certainly has not remained unchanged. In fact the changes in history textbooks during the past twenty years constitute another revolution, less loudly heralded than the social studies and curriculum revision movement, but notable nevertheless as one of the major curriculum changes of our restless generation.

The social, economic, and cultural history demanded a quarter of a century ago by James Harvey Robinson has replaced much of the political, constitutional, and military history of which he and others complained. The attention to modern and recent history, which Robinson, the 1916 report of the N.E.A. Committee on the Social Studies, and the practical educators and the curriculum remakers have demanded, has become a reality. Historians have even attempted with some courage to make history texts explain how the world has come to be what it is, and at the same time an effective effort has been made to present history attractively, and to adapt texts and study to the varying abilities and maturity of pupils. If enabling young people to understand how European and American society and institutions have evolved constitutes a contribution to citizenship training, then authors and publishers have grounds for solid satisfaction. Incidentally such contacts as the many teachers who have been unable or indisposed to continue formal training have made with changing content and methods in history teaching have come through new editions or new adoptions. All in all revolutionary social studies and evolutionary history have moved to the same goal, and so far as the study of the past is concerned bid fair to become indistinguishable in the hands of informed and competent teachers.

In this process the textbooks have usually followed the trend or the recommendations of committees; rarely have they broken new ground. In the reaction against remembering and reciting, and against courses dominated by textbooks and testing, they have often been under attack as pernicious or stultifying. Yet they have steadily become less stultifying for pupils whose unimaginative teachers could do no more than follow a text, and they have become increasingly valuable to teachers who think of a text as an aid rather than as a program.

The two textbooks in American History reviewed below illustrate, as do several others which will be considered later, many of the advances that have been made.

*America: Its History and People.* By Harold U. Faulkner and Tyler Kepner. New York: Harper & Bros. 1934. Pp. xiii, 850. \$2.20.

*The Record of America.* By James Truslow Adams and Charles G. Vannest. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935. Pp. xxiv, 941. \$2.20.

These two textbooks for senior high school lend themselves readily to comparison. Both are long—nearly twice as long as the texts of twenty years ago. In both an experienced writer of American history has collaborated with an experienced teacher who has also long been concerned with the training of teachers. Both texts are organized in "units"—Faulkner and Kepner in six, Adams and Vannest in seven—and both depart in the second half of the volume from the traditional chronological organization of history.

No doubt everyone has the privilege of defining the word "unit" for himself. If the term has any distinctive meaning, however, it would seem to lie in a contrast with chronological treatment. Though "unit" has come into wide use in texts, it has rarely indicated anything different from what might have been found under the leading "chapter" or "period" or "part"; the units have been arranged in chronological order and have fitted together, like former chapters, to make a chronological whole. So in both of these texts Unit One is the story of the English colonies, to which Adams and Vannest add the making of the Constitution; Unit Two carries the story into the Franklin Roosevelt administration. Faulkner and Kepner give 381 pages to these two units, Adams and Vannest 573 pages. Both volumes then adopt a truly unit organization, Adams and Vannest explaining "How the Developing West Has Influenced Our Life, Character, and Attitude," "How the Growth of Industry and Commerce Ushered in the Age of Steel, Machines and Corporations," "How the March of Democracy and the Search for Social Justice Have Taken Place," "How We Have Grown Culturally and Intellectually," and "How People Have Lived in the United States," and concluding with an annotated reprint of "Our Federal Constitution;" while Faulkner and Kepner describe "The Industrialization of America," "Cultural and Social America," "America as a World Power," and "Today's Problems for Americans." In both texts the units are subdivided into "topics" or "chapters" ranging from seven to forty pages in length.

This use of a chronological survey followed by a consideration of major aspects of America history is a distinguishing characteristic of these books. It has obvious values, for it saves pupils from the utter confusion resulting from a lack of sense of chronology and gains intelligibility through close association of related facts. Of course the chronological survey is somewhat hurried, and in Faulkner and Kepner especially the highly condensed survey of the period 1877-1934 in 81 pages presents problems in teaching. The constant reaching back to earlier development in the later topics should certainly make for far more effective learning; without monotonous repetition it requires continuing use of information previously learned.

Both texts give much attention to recent history but without neglect of the earlier development essential to any real understanding of our own times. Both give full accounts of political development and yet find room for well rounded summaries of economic and social development and for sketches, at least, of cultural change.

Can high school pupils absorb so much? Some can. Mature and intelligent students—who have often been intellectually starved in our classes—and pupils who have already surveyed American history in junior high school should welcome a full and

relatively mature treatment. So far as length is concerned, it is time we repudiated the fallacy that history is made easy when it is made brief; illustrative detail is necessary to any real understanding. Certainly a ten to fifteen page assignment that can be easily read and absorbed requires less effort than mastering for "recitation" six pages of close-packed summary. In any case is it altogether heretical to suggest that a text may be used without assigning the whole of it?

Both texts are readable and well-illustrated. They lend themselves readily to learning. Faulkner and Kepner rather make a specialty of quotations from primary sources, and include a rich variety of exercises, activities, and map studies from which teachers may draw. Both volumes make generous use of charts and graphs, and are well-illustrated with photographs and cartoons. Faulkner and Kepner make effective use of sub-scriptions to increase the teaching value of pictures; Adams and Vannest include five colored illustrations and are fortunate in unusually clear and attractive maps. Readings are carefully selected in both volumes; Faulkner and Kepner are especially effective in the treatment of readings and reports, in recommending imaginative literature, and in citing visual material. Their Appendix II lists works for a minimum library.

The problem of the "dull" pupil, weak in background, low in reading ability, or lacking facility for verbal learning has not been solved. Nevertheless these two rounded and intelligible accounts of American development, both competently organized for learning and teaching, should be welcomed by many who still believe it is worth while to consider our present in the light of our past.

ERLING M. HUNT

*The Story of the American Indian.* By Paul Radin. New York: Liveright Publishing Corporation, 1934. Pp. xiv, 383. Illustrated. \$2.50.

*The Rise and Fall of the Choctaw Republic.* By Angie Debo. Norman, Okla.: University of Oklahoma Press, 1934. Pp. xiv, 314. Illustrated. \$3.50.

*New Sources of Indian History, 1850-1891.* By Stanley Vestal. Norman, Okla.: University of Oklahoma Press, 1934. Pp. xix, 351. Illustrated, \$3.50.

In this revision of his earlier work, Radin has produced a volume of literary and scholarly merit presenting a non-technical explanation of the development of native American cultures before the coming of the white man, incorporating into his interpretation the results of recent archeological discoveries. It is "an interpretation, not a mere narration of facts," based on the assumption "that aboriginal American history can only be understood in terms of the spread of the great civilizations that developed in Mexico, Central America, and along the Pacific coast of South America from Ecuador to Peru" (p. vii.). Starting with a description of the Winnebago and their life, organization, and ceremonies, as they might have been seen by Nicolet when he explored Wisconsin in 1634, and with a summary of the location and characteristics of principal tribes in North America at about the time of Lief Ericson's voyages, he follows the clues back until he reaches Mexico and Guatemala, and describes the civilization of the Mayans. Tracing the migrations of this remarkable people and their influence not only upon the valley of Mexico, but far beyond, he contends that some of them crossed the Gulf of Mexico to the mouth of the Mississippi, where they became the Mound Builders, whose culture, spreading in more or less attenuated form, affected a large part of North America. In the southwest the Cliff Dwellers represented a similar extension of the same influence, the remnants of which persist

in the Pueblos. In like manner, in South America, Peruvian culture affected all but the most inaccessible parts of that continent. Later chapters describe typical tribes of various parts of North America. There is a select bibliography, and the illustrations add to the attractiveness of the text.

The other two books deal with Indians in contact with white civilization. Miss Debo has surveyed the history of the Choctaw from the time of De Soto to their removal beyond the Mississippi, in addition to giving a detailed account of their development in their new homes down to the dissolution of their tribal government between 1898 and 1907. For the period after the removal she has described institutional and social growth under such headings as "Economic Development," "Political History," and "Society in the Choctaw Nation." For those interested in the process by which one of the "civilized tribes" combined new ideas of government, law, and society with their own cultural heritage and gradually adapted themselves to the conditions brought by the influx of white population, as well as in their long struggle to maintain their identity and government, this book is a very useful contribution. The text is fully documented, and the notes and bibliography show a considerable use of manuscript as well as printed sources. The narrative is often complex, but much of the material is inherently interesting.

When Stanley Vestal had completed his biographies of Sitting Bull and White Bull, he found that he had collected a great deal of interesting material on the western Sioux, which he had not been able to use. In *New Sources of Indian History* much of this evidence appears in print. Part of it is the result of interviews with Indians who had participated in the events they describe—a type of evidence this writer has done much to preserve. Part I, on the Ghost Dance and the death of Sitting Bull, contains four groups of documents; testimony by officials of the Indian Bureau, by army officers, by Sioux Indians, and by white citizens—missionaries, teachers, and others, who had information to contribute. Part II is a collection of notes on other phases of Sioux history such as warfare, treaties, customs, and miscellaneous events, with a series of notes on individual Indians. A comparative table of casualties in a series of engagements between the Sioux and the United States Army (p. 136) suggests that the statement of General Anson Mills that these Indians were "the best cavalry on earth" (p. 140) was by no means a gross exaggeration. The prefatory note to Part II, describing the process of interviewing Indians with the aid of an interpreter and evaluating this kind of evidence, is especially interesting. Both this book and Miss Debo's contain excellent portraits of Indian chiefs.

DONALD L. MCMURRY

Russell Sage College

*Medieval Agrarian Economy.* By Nellie Neilson. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1936. Pp. vii, 106. \$1.00.

In this latest volume of the *Berkshire Studies in European History* Miss Neilson in three thirty-page essays surveys the organization of medieval villages and agricultural labor, the status of village people, and the relation of the village to the king and the church. The treatment is scholarly and somewhat more technical than most of its companion volumes. Attention is focussed on England, with brief attention to France and incidental references to other parts of western Europe.

The Berkshire Studies are, of course, directed to college students. Secondary school teachers will find Miss Neilson's brief volume useful, though Power's *Medieval People*,

Salzman's *English Life in the Middle Ages*, and parts of Coulton's *Medieval Garner* will provide illustrative material more suitable to their pupils.

E. M. H.

*The Tudors: Personalities and Practical Politics in the Sixteenth Century.* By Conyers Read. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1936. Pp. xi, 264. \$1.75.

"There is no sound reason," insists Read in his forthright Preface "why good history should not be as interesting as bad history, except that good historians, being more or less comfortably settled in college chairs, can afford to be dull, whereas bad historians, who have to live by their wits, must find a supporting reading public or starve." Written with an easy command of its subject, in vigorous and economical prose that has more than a suggestion of Elizabethan flavor, the volume meets its author's challenge.

As the subtitle indicates the narrative is for the most part political and much concerned with personalities which, moreover, are sketched both swiftly and incisively. "At her accession Mary was thirty-seven years old. She was not beautiful and she was not charming. She had a short nose, a square chin, rather hostile eyes and a deep rough voice like a man's"—this opens a three-page sketch of the fourth of the Tudors, which concludes: "In her dealing with the Protestants later Mary won for herself the title *Bloody*, which does her a grave injustice. She was in fact, except when religion was in question, the most merciful of the Tudors" (p. 123 ff.).

There is no disposition to shirk conclusions: "Henry [VIII] was a great ruler of men. He was also a great popular leader . . . no king was ever more careful of the interests of the rank and file of his subjects. His greatest contribution to English constitutional development was the definite establishment of parliament as an essential part of the machinery of government" (p. 99 f.). Events are recounted, but in addition explanations are provided and results assessed.

Nearly half of the volume is devoted, naturally enough, to Elizabeth and her reign. There is a brief glance at economic development towards the end, but no space is found for social history or for literature save in the carefully selective bibliography.

Of such history—readable, reliable, and illuminating—teachers have none too much. Surely they should be numbered among the "wider reading public" with whom Read has shared his knowledge and enjoyment of seventeenth century England.

E. M. H.



## Current Publications Received

### HISTORY, INCLUDING COLLEGE TEXTBOOKS

- Bemis, Samuel Flagg. *A Diplomatic History of the United States*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1936. Pp. xii, 881. \$4.00.
- Benns, F. Lee. *Europe Since 1914*. 2nd revised edition. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1936. Pp. xiv, 851. \$3.75.
- Birnie, Arthur. *Economic History of the British Isles*. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1936. Pp. viii, 391. \$3.00.
- Bowers, Claude G. *Jefferson in Power*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1936. Pp. xix, 538. \$3.75.
- East, Gordon. *An Historical Geography of Europe*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1936. Pp. xx, 480. \$5.00.
- Hertzler, Joyce O. *The Social Thought of the Ancient Civilizations*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1936. Pp. xv, 409. \$4.00.
- Jennings, Walter W. *A History of the Economic and Social Progress of European Peoples*. Lexington, Kentucky: Kernel Press (University of Kentucky). Pp. xiii, 713. \$3.50.
- Kohn, Hans, trans. E. W. Dickes. *Western Civilization in the Near East*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. Pp. xi, 329. \$3.50.
- Seldes, Gilbert. *Mainland*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936. Pp. 443. \$3.00.
- Taft, Donald R. *Human Migration: A Study of International Movements*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1936. Pp. xxvi, 590. \$4.00.
- Trevor, Albert A. *History of Ancient Civilization, Vol. I. The Ancient Near East and Greece*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1936. Pp. xx, 585. \$3.50.
- Violette, Eugene M. *English Constitutional Documents Since 1832*. New York: Macmillan & Co., 1936. Pp. 226. \$2.00.

### SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS IN HISTORY AND SOCIAL STUDIES

- Atwood, Wallace W., and Thomas, Helen Goss. *The Growth of Nations*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1936. Pp. x, 388. \$1.72. For junior high school.
- Bruner, Herbert B., and Smith, C. Mabel. *Social Studies. Intermediate Grades. Book I*. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1936. Pp. viii, 440. 96¢.
- Carrington, C. E., and Jackson, J. Hampden. *A History of England*. Cambridge, England: at the University Press; New York: Macmillan Co., 1936. Pp. xviii, 803. \$2.40. A textbook for English schools.
- Jernegan, Marcus Wilson, Carlson, Harry Ellsworth, and Ross, A. Clayton. *Growth of the American People*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1936. Pp. xviii, 861. \$1.96. For senior high school.
- Muzzey, David S. *A History of Our Country*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1936. Pp. xii, 854. \$2.12. For senior high school.
- Rogers, Lester B., Adams, Fay, and Brown, Walker. *Story of Nations*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1936. Pp. x, 703. \$2.12.

### ECONOMICS

- Brainard, Dudley A., and Zeleny, Leslie D. *Problems of Our Times, Vol. II. Economic and Social Planning*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1936. Pp. xvi, 350. \$1.48. For senior high school; a third volume is projected.
- Chase, Stuart. *Rich Land, Poor Land*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1936. Pp. 361. \$2.50.
- Clark, Grover. *The Balance Sheets of Imperialism*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. Pp. vii, 136. \$2.75.
- Hazelett, C. William. *I. T. (Incentive Taxation)*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1936. Pp. xv, 194. \$1.00.

- New York Stock Exchange: Its Functions and Operations. New York: New York Stock Exchange: Committee on Public Relations, 1936. Pp. 40.
- Noyes, C. Reinold. *The Institution of Property*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1936. Pp. 645. \$7.50.
- Regnolds, Karl G. *Practical Economics of Life Insurance. A Textbook*. 2nd edition. Lincoln, Nebraska: Research Publishing Co., 1936. Pp. 160.
- Shultz, Birl E. *Stock Exchange Procedure*. New York: New York Stock Exchange Institute, 1936. Pp. x, 102. \$1.00.
- Stamp, L. Dudley. *Asia, An Economic and Regional Geography*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1936. Pp. xxi, 704. \$8.00.

## POLITICAL SCIENCE

- Beard, Charles, and Smith, George. *Current Problems of Public Policy*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1936. Pp. 526. \$3.00.
- Herring, E. Pendleton. *Federal Commissioners. A Study of Their Careers and Qualifications* (Harvard Political Studies) Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1936. Pp. xi, 151. \$1.50.
- Herring, E. Pendleton. *Public Administration and the Public Interest*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1936. Pp. 416. \$2.50.
- Munro, William B. *Major Changes in the Governments of Europe Since 1930*. New York: Macmillan & Co. Pp. 68. 40¢.
- Schmeckebier, L. F. *Government Publications and Their Use*. Washington: Brookings Institution, 1936. Pp. 446. \$3.00.
- Spencer, Henry Russell. *Government and Politics Abroad*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1936. Pp. 558. \$2.80.

## CIVICS

- Burton, William H., and others. *Children's Civic Information, 1924-1935* (University of Southern California Monograph Series, No. 7). Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1936. Pp. xxii, 307.
- Darling, Millard S., and Greenberg, Benjamin B. *Effective Citizenship: Personal, Vocational, and Community Civics*. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1936. Pp. xvi, 448. \$1.40. A textbook.
- Frederick, R. W., and Sheats, Paul H. *Citizenship Education Through the Social Studies*. New York: Row, Peterson & Co., 1936. Pp. 312. \$1.20.
- Jepson, R. W. *Clear Thinking: An Elementary Course of Preparation for Citizenship*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1936. Pp. xii, 179. \$1.40. A textbook for English schools.

## EDUCATION, INCLUDING SOCIAL STUDIES METHODS

- Clark, Lewis Wilber. *The Development of the Pupil-Teacher Planned Unit in the Social Studies*. Ventura, California: L. W. Clark, 1936. Pp. 26 (mimeo).
- Fediaevsky, Vera, and Hill, Patty Smith. *Nursery School and Parent Education in Soviet Russia*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1936. Pp. xx, 265. \$2.50.
- Hampton, Vernon B. *New Techniques in Social Science Teaching. A Case Book of Methods*. Stapleton, New York: John Willig Press, 1936. Pp. 320. \$2.75.
- Hawkes, Herbert E., Lindquist, E. F., and Mann, C. R., eds. *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations: A Manual for Secondary School Teachers*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1936. Pp. x, 497. \$2.40.
- Moore, Ernest Carroll. *The Story of Instruction. The Beginnings*. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1936. Pp. 380. \$3.00.
- Swanson, H. B. *Youth—Education for Those Out of School Bulletin, 1936, No. 18-III*. Washington, D.C.: Committee on Youth Problems. Office of Education, 1936. Pp. 80. 10¢.

## MISCELLANEOUS

- Burt, Struthers. *Escape from America*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1936. Pp. xiv, 255. \$2.00.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED  
BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF MARCH 3, 1933, OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES, published  
monthly, October to May inclusive, at Philadelphia, Pa., for October 1, 1936.

State of Pennsylvania,  
County of Philadelphia,

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared Charles S. McKinley, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE SOCIAL STUDIES, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, as amended by the Act of March 3, 1933, embodied in section 537, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business manager are:

Publisher, MCKINLEY PUBLISHING CO., 1021 Filbert St., Philadelphia, Pa.

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